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ABSTRACT

This book, published during the post-war years of the 1950's, offers an historical perspective of suggested policies for improving secondary education and provides details on how the policies and principles could be practiced on the state and local levels. Chapters 1 and 2 discuss the developmental state of American secondary education in the 1950's and the responsibilities of the secondary school brought about by uncertain national and world conditions in the post-World War II years. Characteristics of the youth of this era are discussed in Chapter 3. Chapters 4-9 describe plans for schools of the future. These samples of the many different possible solutions to the problem of meeting the educational needs of youth are intended to stimulate and aid planning and action already underway in many communities. An index to selected topics and a general index are included. (Author/RM)

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Education for ALL American Youth

A Further Look

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Of the National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators

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FOREWORD TO FIRST EDITION

This volume stems from a firm conviction on the part of the Educational Policies Commission that the extension, adaptation, and improvement of secondary education is essential both to the security of our American institutions and to the economic well-being of our people. Such a development in secondary education can and should be brought about within the framework of the local and state educational systems. If the federal government will help to finance and encourage such a development, and if the local and state leadership will do its part, it will be neither necessary nor desirable for the federal government itself to operate educational services for the youth of the nation.

In the nearly three years in which it has been developing these policies for secondary education, the Commission has tried to dig beneath statements of general principles and to suggest in some detail how approved principles can be carried out in practice. It should be emphasized, however, that the programs of education described in this volume are not intended to be blueprints for local school systems. On the contrary, they are merely samples of the many different possible solutions to the problem of meeting the educational needs of all American youth. These samples are offered in the hope that they will stimulate and aid the planning and action which are already under way in many states and communities and which soon must be undertaken in all.

Plans for postwar education are too complex to be improvised in a few months after the problems are already upon us. Now is the time, the one and the best time, for citizens and educators in thousands of American communities to join forces in planning the kinds of schools which America needs and must have.

July 1944

FOREWORD TO REVISED EDITION

During the eight years since Education for ALL American Youth was first published, many fundamental changes have taken place in the United States and the world. In September 1944, the end of World War II was still a year away. Postwar planning—in education, as in other broad phases of American life—was directed toward expectations of which at least two have not materialized. One was an extended interval of uninterrupted peace. The other was a period of economic adjustment attended by a business depression.

Two events, not foreseen in 1944, have prevented the fulfilment of both of these expectations. The first was the release of nuclear energy with the accompanying development and use of the atomic bomb. The second was the ruthless and alarmingly successful postwar demonstration of the ambition of the Russian government to promote a policy of world domination.

Since the close of World War II, increasingly uncertain world conditions, accompanied by a relatively high degree of internal prosperity, have focused American political attention upon international affairs.

Yet, during these postwar years, youth education has rapidly advanced. Aided by prosperous times, thousands of communities have acquired more and better physical facilities for their schools. Inspired by a broader understanding of the wide range of present-day youth needs, countless valuable additions to and adjustments of educational programs have been made. These types of basic improvement now go on apace.

Nevertheless, much remains to be done. Many schools, and many areas throughout the nation, have been unable to furnish adequate school plants and equipment. Many communities still maintain outmoded and limited programs of youth education. And even the best schools still have ample room for further improvement.

The continued interest in and nationwide use of EDUCATION FOR ALL AMERICAN YOUTH—by teachers, other educational leaders, and forward looking citizens generally—have convinced the Educational Policies Commission that the book has attributes of enduring educational value. For that reason, the Commission has authorized the present revised edition.

Changes in the volume have been limited to the removal of anachronisms now evident in the first edition and to the addition of brief discussions of currently important problems in secondary education. The first two chapters and the last chapter—which reports recent developments in schools throughout the country—are new. The remainder of the book has been revised to the extent necessary to bring it up to date. The educational principles and the school practices described in the original work have been left substantially unchanged.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

MANY groups and individuals assisted the Commission during 1942-1944 in preparing the first edition of this book. Their names are mentioned on pages vii and viii of that edition.

Most of the original volume, including the chapters on Farmville and American City, was drafted by the late GEORGE L. MAXWELL, then assistant secretary of the Commission. Of his contribution the acknowledgment which appeared in the first edition said: "Nothing that the Commission can say in appreciation of his skill and untiring effort could be a greater tribute to him than the unusual combination of broad vision and practical common sense revealed in every page of these chapters."

The idea for a revised edition was conceived by FRANCIS L. BACON, a former chairman of the Commission, whose proposal was accepted by the Commission in 1949. Thereupon the responsibility for the project was assigned to a committee of eight under the chairmanship of Dr. Bacon. Other members of the committee were AUBREY A. DOUGLASS, WILLARD E. GOSLIN, E. W. JACOBSEN, EDWIN A. LEE, J. PAUL LEONARD, JOHN A. SEXSON, and ALEXANDER J. STODDARD. Six of the eight on this committee were former members of the Educational Policies Commission.

The revision committee engaged KYLE ESGATE to serve as its secretary. He carried major responsibility for drafting the three new chapters (1, 2, and 10) in the present volume and for rewriting parts of other chapters.

The Commission wishes to record its deep appreciation to Mr. Esgate, to Dr. Bacon and the members of his committee, and to all others who have helped to make this book. The Commission also wishes to acknowledge with appreciation the efforts of the

National Association of Secondary-School Principals to reach a wider audience with the message of EDUCATION FOR ALL AMERICAN YOUTH through the publication of an illustrated pamphlet summary entitled *Planning for American Youth.* This pamphlet was originally prepared by J. Paul Leonard in 1944. In 1951 a revised edition was prepared by the same author and published by the Association.

The Commission alone assumes responsibility for the content of the document as here published. The policies in this volume are those of the Educational Policies Commission and are not to be ascribed to the Commission's sponsoring associations: the National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

FOREWORD vi

FOREWORD TO REVISED EDITION vii

ACKNOWLEDGMENT ix

CHAPTER

1. THE DEVELOPING SECONDARY SCHOOL 1
2. IN THIS UNCERTAIN WORLD 12
3. FOR ALL AMERICAN YOUTH 23
4. FARMVILLE COMMUNITY SCHOOL— District Characteristics and Youth Needs 34
5. FARMVILLE COMMUNITY SCHOOL— Curriculum Plans and Activities 82
6. FARMVILLE COMMUNITY SCHOOL— Organizational Plans and Purposes 147
7. SCHOOLS FOR YOUTH IN AMERICAN CITY— The Development of a Program for All Youth 166
8. SCHOOLS FOR YOUTH IN AMERICAN CITY— The Program of Learning for Youth Today 230
9. A STATE SYSTEM OF YOUTH EDUCATION 315
10. EDUCATION FOR ALL AMERICAN YOUTH MOVES FORWARD 355

INDEX TO SELECTED TOPICS 384

GENERAL INDEX 385

CHAPTER 1

THE DEVELOPING SECONDARY SCHOOL

POPULAR education at the secondary level is still in a developmental state in the United States. Only half of our youth now graduate from high school; of those who do graduate many have not received the education they most needed. In addition, a large number of young people who could profitably continue their education beyond high school do not now do so because suitable cost-free schools are not available. While the American secondary school is one of the most remarkable institutions ever established by an aspiring society, in many ways it is still as much a hopeful development as a final achievement.

An Adjustment to Present Needs

When we say that secondary education is still developing, we do not mean simply that the secondary school is constantly attempting to refine its present procedures and to adjust them to current social change. In such respects all vital institutions are developing, the secondary school certainly no less than others. The kind of development to which we refer here, however, is more fundamental than that directed toward day-to-day adaptation. It involves a "catching up" process, an overcoming of the present lag between the school and society.

The object of this development is to bring about a better basic accommodation between the secondary school and the great amount and variety of contemporary social needs. The motivation of this development is the conviction that, in spite of very many present virtues, secondary education is now only partially fulfilling its potentialities and its obligations to youth—and hence to society as a whole. The faith supporting this development is the belief that the secondary school can, and quickly, become a most effective means of leading *all* American youth from the immaturity of childhood to the finest manhood and womanhood that their native endowment and previous training make possible.

The Educational Policies Commission feels that the United States could scarcely enjoy a greater benefit or a better auguary for a secure and happy national future than would be realized in the success of this effort. Basic adjustments in youth education have been under way in schools throughout the country for many years, and with most fruitful results. In preparing this book on the education for *all* American youth, it has been our hope to extend vision regarding possibilities for further advance and to stress the great urgency inherent in these critical times for rapidly accelerated progress.

A Continuing Effort

It is important to realize that secondary education, as we know it today, is a relatively new idea in the United States—and a unique one in world history. The secondary school traces its growth from origins three hundred years in the nation's past. Its history includes the Latin Grammar School, Benjamin Franklin's Academy, the later academies, and the first high school (founded in Boston in 1821). Today's schools are very different from these early forerunners. Yet the

FOUR FAMOUS "FIRSTS" IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

1. First American secondary school: Boston Public Latin (grammar) School, 1635. The Latin Grammar School was the dominant secondary institution in the United States until about the middle of the eighteenth century.

2. First academy: Philadelphia, 1751. Established under the influence of Benjamin Franklin, it early became the University of Pennsylvania.

3. First typical academies: Phillips Andover, 1778; and Phillips Exeter, 1783. The academy was the dominant secondary institution from about 1750 to the middle of the nineteenth century.

4. First high school: Boston, 1821. Founded as the English Classical School, its name was changed to English High School in 1824. The high school was established to furnish, at public expense, a new emphasis on practical, "down-to-earth" education, and to obviate the necessity of sending children away from home to secure a secondary education.

present-day secondary school is but the most recent stage in a uniform growth from deeply rooted institutional traditions.

Nevertheless, although secondary education today is still much influenced by its early traditions, it reflects an immense, upsurging change in our national life which has occurred largely within the last eighty years.

We cannot here describe the vast social and economic mutations which have taken place in this country since the Civil War. But two facts vital to the understanding of modern secondary education must be noted. One of these is the enormous numerical growth of the secondary school since about 1880; the other is the enlargement of the school's functions.

A Problem of Growth

In 1880, there were approximately 110,000 youth enrolled in American high schools. In 1950 the corresponding secondary-school grades enrolled approximately 5,700,000 students. The *fifty*fold increase in secondary-school attendance during the past 70 years compares with a *three*fold increase in the total population during the same period. In each of the six decades preceding 1940, secondary-school enrolments throughout the country nearly doubled.

LEGAL SUPPORT
OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

1. The Massachusetts Bay Colony *Law of 1647:* Called the most important piece of school legislation in our history, this law provided for general compulsory education and public support of elementary and secondary schools. The law was too far in advance of its time for enforcement.

2. Massachusetts *Law of 1827:* Legalized the high school. Provided that every community of 500 families must have an annual school term of ten months, exclusive of vacations.

3. *The Kalamazoo Case, 1874:* Against the contention that there was no authority to make the high school free by taxation levied on the people at large, the Michigan State Supreme Court ruled that school districts had a right to determine for themselves the extent of the educational program they wished to offer, if their voters consented to provide tax support. This decision furnished precedent for decisions in other states.

Needless to say, this expansion of secondary education produced problems of the greatest severity in matters of sheer physical accommodation. To furnish buildings, equipment, and teachers for such a perpetually increasing flood of youth required heroic efforts from school authorities and laymen alike. Less dramatic and urgent, but more profoundly serious than the lack of material facilities was the lack of an adequate school program for the majority of youth.

A Problem of Changing Functions

As it became apparent that the secondary school was to become an educational institution for the great multitude of American youth, rather than for the few, it was inevitable that serious questions should arise regarding the reasons for this change. Why were parents everywhere throughout the land now sending their children to high school, whereas hitherto the great majority had felt that an elementary education was sufficient? What did these parents expect the secondary school to provide for youth? To most families the supporting of sons and daughters through their high-school years entailed marked sacrifice; what faith in the benefits of a high-school education made this sacrifice seem so worth while?

The answers to these questions were at first by no means clear. They are not in every instance completely clear today.

As Parents Viewed the High School. In general, parents saw in the secondary school an opportunity for their children to gain a better education than they had had themselves. As economic conditions improved, particularly in the rapidly growing towns and cities, parents sought to realize family ambitions through the superior preparation of the next generation. Associating the success of leaders in trade and business, and eminence in the professions of law, medicine, and the ministry, with formal education, parents looked to the secondary school and the college as the key to equal good fortune for their own youth. Probably there was also a cumulative factor at work. When one family sent its children to high school, other families felt obliged to do so, if only in the interest of maintaining social status. There were many other reasons, often not manifest to individual parents themselves.

Parents generally assumed that the school program was essentially satisfactory for their children. Most parents had not had a secondary-school education themselves and thus could not very well evaluate the school's offerings. They were impressed by the school as an institution of long distinction, and they wanted their youth to enjoy precisely the same advantages as those hitherto available only to their social and economic superiors. Thus, early adjustment of the curriculum to the great variety of talent and interest among the multitudes of young people entering the school would probably have brought sharp complaint from the great majority of parents. Only later, as they reviewed the results of traditional high-school education, did many parents and communities begin to inspect the program realistically.

As Youth Viewed the High School. The youth actually receiving this newly extended education were strongly influenced by their parents and teachers. To these young people, attending high school was an honor. They looked upon it as the gateway to a bright personal future. But there were aspects of a high-school education that many of them disliked and could not understand. Certain traditional, required courses were of baffling difficulty. Many youth could see in them nothing that related to their own plans and ambitions for adult life. Questions regarding the usefulness of these courses were met with assurances about hidden values that seemed to youth largely mystical; hence, they often secretly resolved to expend no more effort on them than was strictly necessary. As a result, many students failed in their schoolwork.

Changing Secondary-School Functions. Educational authorities observed the enormous increase in secondary-school attendance with mixed feelings of anxiety, pride, and wonder. They were faced with grave difficulties in providing the barest school necessities. Soon they were confronted with the even more perplexing problem of educational adjustment. Teachers found that far too many of their students were having trouble with traditional school subjects. The time-honored conclusion was often drawn: the students were either lazy or stupid. Many educators believed that youth who wouldn't or couldn't do their schoolwork should be dropped from the rolls.

But, during the closing years of the last century, better thinking and policy began to prevail. For one thing, restricting the enrolment exclusively to those youth interested in and capable of mastering the traditional curriculum was impractical. There were too many youth who would thus be excluded. As had been done in the early private academies, tentative additions to the curriculum were tried —in commercial subjects, home economics, industrial arts, manual training, music, physical education, and, in some farming communities, agriculture. Education for all youth was beginning. But although many students welcomed these new courses because they brought about a certain amount of elective choice, until the beginning of the present century and for some time thereafter all vocational and nonacademic instruction in the secondary school had hard sledding. The forces of tradition were strongly opposed to such training. When traditional teachers accepted it reluctantly, they often tried to turn essentially practical work into scientific and disciplinary study.

For a time the high school avoided the central difficulty confronting it by gradually and perhaps unconsciously relaxing its academic standards. This affected all students in the school unfavorably: those less gifted in academic work continued to waste their time; the more talented received inadequate preparation. Nevertheless, the reduction of school standards brought into sharp relief the problem of the relationship between the secondary school and the college.

Development of Independence

Until the closing years of the last century, the secondary school in the United States was a college preparatory institution, and little else. In 1880, about three-fourths of the youth in high school went on to college. The program of the high school at this time made virtually no provision for any kind of terminal education. By contrast, in 1950, less than one-fourth of high-school graduates entered college; the great majority went directly to work.

When the impact of youth of every sort and from every kind of family background brought an increased variety of courses to the high school, and a reduction of academic standards also became noticeable, the college reacted strongly. It complained that everything under the sun was being taught in the secondary school and that incoming college students were ill prepared. College authorities set about examining the high school.

The result of this examination was a rather grudging admission that some consideration should be allowed secondary-school youth who did not plan to enter college, but its principal effect was to insure the maintenance of collegiate interests in the high school as a preparatory institution. To illustrate the attitude of college officials toward the secondary school at the close of the century, we quote a passage from the influential report of the Committee of Ten, issued in 1893 by the National Education Association. All but one member of this committee were men whose concerns were primarily with the college:

> The secondary schools of the United States, taken as a whole, do not exist for the purpose of preparing boys and girls for colleges. . . . Their main function is to prepare for the duties of life that small proportion of all the children in the country—a proportion small in number, but very important to the welfare of the nation—who show themselves able to profit by an education prolonged to the eighteenth year, and whose parents are able to support them while they remain so long at school.[1]

Here we see an apparent acknowledgment of the right of the secondary school to an independent life as an institution for non-college preparatory functions. But it is also evident that, in the view of the committee members, the school was still an institution for the economically and socially privileged few, rather than a school for all youth. Nevertheless, the report of the Committee of Ten was the most influential statement on the purposes of secondary education for the next twenty-five years.

Not until after the first world war was there widespread official recognition of a public secondary school substantially independent of the college, with objectives of its own and responsibilities to American youth of all sorts. In 1918, the National Education Association's Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education brought forth the famous *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, a report which contained the seven objectives of the secondary school.[2] With this report, it may be said that a new secondary school, dedicated to all the nation's youth, was christened.

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[1] *Report of the Committee of Ten on Secondary School Studies*. New York: American Book Company, 1894. p. 51. New edition, "published for the National Educational Association" [as the NEA was known at that time].

A Development Not Yet Completed

Thus it is seen that education for all American youth is itself still a young and growing enterprise. Today we stand somewhere midway between the traditional secondary education designed for only a small fraction of youthful society and the education for all youth which is now so imperatively necessary to individual, community, and national welfare. There was much that was good in the earlier secondary school, and that part of it which is applicable to life today must be preserved. But if we are to have the universal youth education demanded by our times, the great experiment which has brought us to this point must be continued. And progress toward its goals must be accelerated.

When we say that we are now approximately midway in the development of education for all youth, we do not mean midway in time, but midway in result. There must not be—fortunately there need not be—any such protracted interval between now and the successful conclusion of this development as the period of time which has elapsed since the beginnings of our efforts in this direction. The major adjustments in thought with respect to the scope and purposes of secondary education have now been made. Parents, youth, and educational authorities are in the main now agreed on the essential objectives of education at the secondary level. With determination, with imagination, with devotion, and with critical evaluation of progress, we can go forward toward our goal far more speedily than has ever been possible in the past. We must do so in order to justify past struggles; we must do so to protect our future security and happiness.

To identify present deficiencies should evoke both a program of action and the will to act. The remainder of this volume is largely devoted to proposing programs of action. What most needs to be done can be indicated by an enumeration of present deficiencies:

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[2] *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education.* United States Department of the Interior, Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1918, No. 35. Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1918. p. 9.

1. Many American youth who should be attending secondary school are not doing so.
2. Approximately half of American youth are either not in secondary school or are dropping out before completing the twelfth year.
3. A very large number of youth in secondary school are not getting an education fully suited to their abilities, interests, and needs.
4. Many youth who could advantageously use more education than they are receiving are not getting it because cost-free schools of an appropriate type are not available to them.

A Product of Many Endeavors

In the United States, public education is under the control of local and state authorities. There are many good reasons why this should be so. Even if these reasons did not exist, a unified national control of education could not be efficient in so vast and diverse a land.

But because control of the schools is a local responsibility, improvements in secondary education can be attained only as the sum of many basic local improvements. If present deficiencies are to be overcome, we must have (a) local recognition of needs, (b) local determination to meet them, (c) local initiative directed toward that end, and (d) exchange of ideas and methods.

Recognition of Needs. In the great majority of schools and communities throughout the nation the need for providing more and better adjusted youth education is now recognized. This is not to deny that there is much well-justified pride in local education achievements, but there is also an enlightened awareness of the necessity for further advance. Wherever undue complacency does exist, however, it is an important duty of those in the school and community who are conscious of unmet needs to arouse a widespread realization of them.

Determination To Improve. It is always more difficult to move men to act than to persuade them that action is needed. But in every section of the country today plans are under way to increase both the quantity and quality of youth service. Schools and communities of all sorts and sizes plan with hope and act with resolution to increase the opportunities for their young people. Again, in schools and communities where such plans for expansion are not now in evidence, educational and civic leaders should initiate immediate activities in this direction.

Development of Local Initiative. Similarly, in all parts of the country, and in secondary schools of every kind, programs of an exploratory nature are now being carried forward. Some of these programs already have proved their worth and have gained an estalished place in the school; others are in an adjustment stage, searching for better methods and more certain values; still others, born in high hope, have been abandoned. Whether successful or not, each soundly conceived, faithfully executed attempt to further the great cause of providing more adequately prepared American citizens in these troublous times is an act of high patriotism. There is no school, however meritorious, that cannot find room for improvement. When a move toward this end is fortunate, a positive, ongoing educational service has been created; when such a move proves mistaken, important knowledge for further effort has nevertheless been gained.

Exchange of Ideas and Methods. In public education, as in many other far-reaching human activities today, schools are mutually dependent. Just as isolation in our international relationships is no longer a practical political policy, so isolation in school relationships within the various areas of our mobile, restless country is no longer a practical educational policy. Today every school has to pay attention to and care about what other schools are doing in youth education. They cannot grow and improve by themselves alone. In the interest of its own youth, each school should take pains to get, adopt, and modify to its own needs, ideas, and methods from other schools, and each should reciprocate by helping other schools.

SUMMARY

The theme of this chapter throughout has been that American secondary education is still in a developmental state today.

1. Basic improvements in the scope and quality of secondary education are needed.

2. Many improvements have been made and have borne most fruitful results.

3. The secondary school of today is a new school and a still growing one.

4. The functions of the school since the close of the first world war have changed and expanded greatly.

5. The school today is roughly at the midpoint of its full development. The foundations for that development are now established generally in the minds of educational authorities, parents, laymen, and youth. Progress to the point of full, countrywide service to youth should now be rapid.

6. In schools under local control, national improvement is but the sum of many thousands of local improvements. With recognition of need, determination to fulfil that need, exploratory efforts, and interchange of ideas and methods, each school will achieve the great objectives of complete youth service.

CHAPTER 2

IN THIS UNCERTAIN WORLD

THE world in which today's youth are growing up is one of conflict and uncertainty. It appears probable that this situation will confront maturing young people for many years to come. So far as we can now see, conditions of American life hitherto regarded as normal show little prospect of a quick return.

If further warfare on a global scale is avoided, serious international discord nevertheless seems sure to continue for a long time to come. Large military forces will almost certainly be maintained by the nation indefinitely.

Many special problems in youth adjustment have arisen and will arise in these difficult days. The most devoted thought and the most vigorous action from parents, from the school, and from the community are required if these problems are to be solved.[1]

For Youth Entering the Armed Forces

The majority of male youth are leaving or will leave home for a period of military service following their graduation from high school. Many will go without completing their high-school work. Some will have a year or more of post-high-school education before they leave.

No youth should depart without a knowledge of the tradition of freedom which he preserves or be unaware of the deep necessity which underlies his sacrifice. All youth should be led to feel a sense of honor as well as a sense of duty in the task confronting them.

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[1] See: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. ***American Education and International Tensions.*** Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1949; Educational Policies Commission and Executive Committee of the American Council on Education. ***Education and National Security.*** Washington, D. C.: the Commission and the Council, 1951; and Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. ***Growing Up in an Anxious Age.*** Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1952.

Insofar as possible, these youth must be given a feeling of continued identity with their families, their school, and their community while they are away. The school must make every effort to insure their belief that sincere interest in them and their activities exists during their absence. They must be led to understand that their service is appreciated as a contribution to local and national safety. They must be assured that the threads of their civilian lives are being kept ready at hand, untangled, awaiting their return. If their plans call for further education after their military service, they must be given encouragement and assistance to take up where they left off in school; schools of a suitable type must without fail be ready for them. Similarly, help must be given them if their returning objective is not school but a job.

For Youth Approaching Military Service

For youth still in school who have yet to undergo military service, the regular school program must include types of learning useful in preparation for military life. The secondary school must accept its responsibility to help youth prepare for the armed services just as it gives help in preparation for other careers. However regrettable the hard facts confronting youth and the nation today, the school must face these facts squarely and resolutely, with sincere determination to make the largest possible contribution to the security of the country.

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF YOUNG MEN WHO WILL REACH THE AGES OF 17, 18, 19 DURING THE YEARS 1951 THROUGH 1955 (in thousands)

Year (July 1)	*17 Years of Age*	*18 Years of Age*	*19 Years of Age*
1951	1,034	1,046	1,081
1952	1,083	1,033	1,044
1953	1,110	1,082	1,031
1954	1,105	1,109	1,080
1955	1,156	1,103	1,107

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census.

To this end, every secondary school which has not already done so should conduct a realistic study of young men's special military needs. Each student's educational program should be re-examined in the light of these needs. The curriculum should include appropriate knowledge and skills of value in preparing for military service. Such adjustment can be accomplished largely through expansion and adaptation of courses already provided.

In recognizing the obligation of the secondary school under current circumstances to anticipate military service, it is important that other objectives be kept in view. Specialized training for military activities is the job of the military authorities. However, the high school does have an important preinduction job because the education needed is much broader than the specific skills of military life. A good general education is the best basic preparation for service in war as well as for service in peace.

Mathematics and Science. As mathematical and scientific competence are of prime importance to military effectiveness, care should be taken that all youth receive the maximum training in these areas of which they are capable. Educational guidance that ordinarily might not stress these subjects in the programs of certain youth should be modified to include them. Refresher courses in mathematics and science should be set up for youth whose previous work has not been satisfactory and for others who need to review their backgrounds and re-establish their skills.

Mechanics and Electronics. No less important than mathematics and science to modern military effectiveness is knowledge of the principles of mechanics and electronics. Skills in the operation, maintenance, and repair of machinery, radio, and other electrical apparatus, even of an elementary nature, are often of the greatest value to men in service. The school should give its youth an opportunity to gain both theoretical and practical knowledge of different types of mechanisms. Where facilities are meagre—and even where they are extensive—community resources should be called upon to assist in this type of learning.

Communication. Both military and civil life need lucid expression, clear thinking, and skill in reading. Study of the mother tongue in American high schools is one element in "education for all." The growing opportunities for diplomatic, military, and other service in foreign countries is one of the reasons why more high-school youth with aptitudes for learning foreign languages should be given opportunity and encouragement to do so.

Self-Reliance and Health. While the secondary school may or may not assume responsibility for any actual military training, there are many things the school can do for its pre-service youth which will improve their personal efficiency, self-reliance, and safety in the emergency situations often encountered in military action. Typical of such things are instruction in camping, first aid, swimming, map reading, simple cooking, garment mending, handling of small boats, and maintenance of personal health and sanitation. The school should institute a program of instruction in these and similar self-protective skills, relying upon the special talents of teachers and students in areas not covered by the resources of the regular curriculum. This type of program provides admirable opportunity for calling upon the community for instructional aid and cooperation.

Ethical and Moral Behavior. Another important part of the school's program of orientation to military service should be instruction in the ethical and moral problems peculiar to military life. Few experiences so test a man's capacity for self-control and thoughtful conduct as donning a uniform and leaving the normal restraints of home, school, church, and community. Thoroughgoing and candid group discussions of

REJECTION OF YOUTH FOR MILITARY SERVICE

1. Approximately 35 percent of youth selected as candidates for military service during 1950-51 were unable to meet induction standards.

2. Of these, about 20 percent were rejected for health defects, and about 15 percent for mental and educational deficiencies.

3. Rejection rates in World Wars I and II were 18.2 percent and 33 percent, respectively.

4. While increased percentages of rejection do not reflect general deterioration among American youth—but, rather, sharply raised induction standards—the incidence of rejection is far higher than necessary.

5. The frequency of rejection for correctible defects which have long been known to those rejected shows the great need for a more effective program of youth improvement and rehabilitation.

6. A higher rate of rejection in rural than in urban areas shows the special need of improved medical and educational services in small towns and farming communities.

these matters will help greatly in preparing youth for the effects of loneliness, dullness, and the oftentimes seeming uselessness of their periods of service in the armed forces. Stress should be laid upon the need for patience and philosophy in meeting trying conditions. The necessity of holding fast to moral and spiritual values should be explained. The important fact that the peoples of foreign lands frequently judge our entire nation in accordance with their opinions regarding our military representatives should be strongly emphasized. The teaching of values, of course, should permeate the entire school program.[2]

Foreign Peoples and Cultures. In this last connection, the school should greatly strengthen its study of other nations. Youth should be given insight into the ways in which peoples in various lands differ culturally from ourselves. As a foundation for this instruction, a review of name-place geography should be undertaken, so that students may better visualize the location of other countries and their relative geographic positions. Foreign customs should be taught, not for their oddity or seeming quaintness, but for understanding of traditions, manners, and national and religious beliefs. Throughout this instruction, stress should be laid upon the need for thoughtfulness, imagination, and consideration in personal behavior in strange environments, with constant awareness of the great national responsibility each American bears when away from home as a prototype of all other Americans in the eyes of other peoples. Teachers of language, social studies, and others with knowledge and experience of foreign countries should join in this instruction. Here again the help of the community can be invaluable. Veterans of World Wars I and II, both on the faculty and elsewhere in the area of the school, should be called upon for aid in many phases of the school's orientation program.

For Young Women

The impact of these unsettled times upon young women, both within and without the secondary school, is not to be ignored. Their prospects for marriage and a family life are uncertain. Their opportunities to aid the national defense effort are less clear, although the desire to be useful is real. The home, the school, and the community must recognize clearly that adjustment to current personal uncertainties and social tensions is by no means exclusively a masculine problem.

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[2] See: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. ***Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools.*** Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1951.

Many girls are faced with an early decision on whether to marry before the boy leaves for military service or to wait for his return. They must decide, too, whether the work they do during the years the men are in service may become a career, requiring greater vocational preparation, or whether they can be sure it is only an interim occupation before becoming a homemaker. Thus, the need for thoughtful and sympathetic personal guidance of secondary-school girls should be kept in mind.

The indefinite responsibility of women in national defense must also be considered. Young women should be made to feel the value of what they are learning, of the work or college they will enter upon graduation, and of their role as civilians. As students, workers, and citizens they can contribute to the preservation of democracy at home. They can look forward to playing a larger role in guiding the future of this country. The struggle between democracy and totalitarianism involves active responsibilities for women.

To a greater extent than ever before, all segments of society are now involved in the task of preserving human liberty. Much of the school's program for the orientation of young men to military service will also be of value to young women. Whether or not the service of women in military preparedness is eventually made mandatory, women will certainly be needed in great numbers in many occupations incident to national defense. The demand for nurses, teachers, social service workers, personnel specialists, saleswomen, machine operators, typists, stenographers, and other secretarial and clerical workers will substantially increase because of national emergency measures. In its educational guidance activities, the school should strongly encourage girls to prepare themselves in vocational skills, as well as in homemaking and cultural fields. Because of the continuing need for professional workers, for some girls the question of going to college or accepting a defense job must be carefully weighed. The school's curriculum should be expanded in vocational areas of the type needed by girls, so that community and national requirements for trained women are abundantly met.

For Every Youth in Every School

In this time of grave national world uncertainty, nothing is more important to youth, and in the long run to society, than a better comprehension of the great social, economic, and political problems confronting the United States and other countries. Every American home, every community group, and every classroom in the school should contribute to the clarification of the immensely serious questions of these crucial days. The processes of democratic participation in reaching national decisions and in taking united action have never been more necessary than they are now.

History—Past and Present. Since the causes of today's domestic and international dangers lie both in the present and past, all youth — and all society — need to know more than hitherto of current national and world developments and of the important facts of American and world history. Because the greatest burden of responsibility for the maintenance of human freedom and universal peace has been thrust by circumstance upon our nation; and because the fight for freedom — whether in the halls of diplomacy or on the field, sea, and air of battle—is now peculiarly our fight; it is more vital than ever before that American citizens understand both the foreground and background of this decisive struggle.

> "A popular Government, without popular information or the means of acquiring it, is but a Prologue to a Farce or a Tragedy, or, perhaps both. Knowledge will forever govern ignorance; and a people who mean to be their own Governors must arm themselves with the power which knowledge gives."
>
> James Madison

The teaching of contemporary and historical events should be guided by a clear, unifying purpose. The dynamic theme of all such study must be the constantly reiterated question: "In what way does, or did, this man, this group of men, this idea, this law, this constitution, this discovery, this invention, this war, this treaty, this event contribute to the increase or decrease of individual freedom, and promote or impede general human welfare?" Only through such purposeful teaching will youth and other citizens today gain a clearer concept of the values of democracy as opposed to the evils of dictatorship. And only as a product of such personally understood concepts will all Americans be led to feel the devotion to liberty which is the most imperative necessity of these ominous times.

International Democracy. The complexity of world relationships today is so great that no important event can take place anywhere on earth without leaving its mark upon our nation and other nations. The time has long passed when the United States could limit its concern for human freedom to its own boundaries. Whether we wish to or not, we must now seriously consider the views, attitudes, and actions of peoples everywhere.

This is not to say that we should adopt a busybody policy of interference in foreign lands; that is a tendency we should carefully avoid. But upon one issue we are now forced to take a firm and undeviating stand. That issue is the question as to whether the peoples of the world are to enjoy increasing degrees of individual and social independence and security, or are to suffer greater degrees of personal slavery and social peril. Americans have never been cold-blooded and unsympathetic to evidence of foreign distress, but were we so, today we should still have to align ourselves with other less fortunate nations in the world struggle for larger measures of democracy. For if a substantial majority of the earth's population does not attain a greater amount of individual freedom and release from present economic and political subjugation, we in our own country cannot hope long to preserve our freedom here.

In the secondary school, no responsibility is so great as that of teaching the principles of the democratic way of life. If youth are to develop a deep, mature, and productive loyalty to our national heritage of freedom, they must learn to understand clearly democracy's implications. They must realize that, as a people, we hold no special lease upon liberty, and that to preserve it here we must help to extend it to all people throughout the world.

The School Shares Its Responsibility

The burden of youth education in these times cannot be left to the secondary school alone. It must be shared widely by the home and many other groups in the community. Because of the traditional aloofness of the secondary school, as an institution for formal learning and little more, the preponderance of effort in bringing about closer working relationships between the school, home, and community must come from the school itself. In many instances in the past, the school has, often unwittingly, rebuffed efforts upon the part of outside individuals and groups to cooperate in youth education. Thus, the public has to some extent been trained to restrict its relationships with the school to terms established entirely by the school.

To a degree necessary for efficient educational administration, the direction of school-home-community activities will still need to be left in the hands of the school. But educational resources outside the school should be far more frequently and exhaustively used than ever before. The adjustment of youth to life in our complex society, and especially to the uncertainties of present world conditions, can not be made entirely within the classroom or on the campus. Obviously, youth adjustment has never been made there alone, or even nearly so. It is time for the secondary school to recognize, and to welcome much more actively, the joint nature of the responsibility it holds with other established social agencies for the education of all American youth.

The armed forces constitute another nonschool agency of great significance for youth education—especially under present conditions. In some cases military service, or the prospect of military service, has been a motivating force for school study. In other cases the same prospect has interfered with the completion of secondary education: it has caused some boys to drop out of school prematurely to enlist in the armed forces or to go to work; and, in some places, it has prompted unwise curtailment of secondary-school experience through indiscriminate acceleration.

For youth in military service, the armed forces are an educative agency of great power. As it is the duty of the school, the home, and the community to prepare young people for service to the nation, so it is the reciprocal duty of the armed forces to foster those qualities of democratic thought, personal integrity, and moral and spiritual insight among young people that make the nation worth defending. This responsibility has long been recognized by our military leaders; it is now more important than ever that they join cooperatively with civilian groups in the great task of safeguarding America's most fundamental hope of future peace and security—its youth.

SUMMARY

The purpose of this chapter has been to explain some of the responsibilities of the secondary school brought about by present gravely uncertain national and world conditions:

1. The majority of young men will undergo a period of military service, following their high-school years. These youth should be:
    a. Made aware of the vital need for their sacrifice and led to feel both a sense of duty and a sense of honor in their task
    b. Helped to feel that during their absence the home, school, and community have a continued interest in them
    c. Assured that their service is appreciated and that provision for their future education or work has been made.

2. For youth still in school, a pre-service orientation program, adapted to individual capacities, should be set up to include special instruction in:
    a. Mathematics and science
    b. Mechanics and electronics
    c. Communication
    d. Skills leading to self-reliance and health in emergencies
    e. Ethical and moral conduct under military conditions
    f. The location, background, and culture of foreign peoples.

3. The impact of the current uncertain times upon young women should be recognized by home, school, and community. The school should:
    a. Give thoughtful and sympathetic personal guidance which takes into account the emotional and psychological factors which affect girls in such times

b. Help young girls to recognize and value their responsibilities in the struggle between democracy and totalitarianism

c. Enable girls to prepare themselves in vocational skills as well as in homemaking and cultural fields

d. Expand the curriculum in vocational areas of the type needed by girls.

4. All youth in the school should be:

a. Given a better comprehension of social, economic, and political problems confronting the United States and other nations

b. Taught history and world affairs in terms of the effect of men, movements, and events upon the struggle for human liberty

c. Helped to realize that to preserve freedom in America this nation must defend it in all parts of the world and lend support to its increase among peoples everywhere.

5. The responsibility for youth adjustment and education should be shared by the school, home, and community more greatly than hitherto. The school should take the initiative in bringing about closer cooperation between these agencies. The armed forces have a dual responsibility: to encourage youth to complete their secondary-school education and to enhance the educational value of their service in uniform.

CHAPTER 3

FOR *ALL* AMERICAN YOUTH

THERE are two important facts to remember about *all* American youth.

First, there are about 11 million of them between the sixteenth and twenty-first birthday, the group with whose education this document is primarily concerned.

Second, no two of the 11 million are identical.

Here, by way of example, are brief descriptions of a dozen or so out of the 11 million. The number of these sketches is limited for practical reasons; a thousand such accounts would not exhaust their infinite variety.

Here, to begin with, is *Edith* of Suburbia. She has about average intelligence. Her family is well-to-do, with a tradition of college education. They have planned that she shall attend a rather expensive women's college. She has no definite vocational purpose, but she looks forward to college experience and feels sure she will have "a perfectly swell time."

Here is *Max*, born in Metropolis and raised on the streets thereof, a boy of average intelligence and no special abilities as yet discovered. He has the capacity to learn and follow any one of the fairly skilled occupations. The family is respectable, living in moderate circumstances. The father and mother have little education themselves and no great appreciation of its value to others. There are several younger brothers and sisters who must be fed and clothed. Max left school at the end of the compulsory attendance period and got a job. He lost this job in a few months and is now unemployed, an economic liability to his family instead of an asset as they had hoped.

Next, meet *Gilbert* who lives across the street from the post office in Farmville. He is somewhat above average in intelligence, fleet of foot and broad in the shoulders, the star athlete of the village high school. He has a knack with engines and is already working part time in the local garage. He is studying English, social studies, auto mechanics, and Spanish. Gilbert says he doesn't care much about going to college. His family can support him in high school but could not afford tuition or even living expenses for him away from home.

This is *George,* a Negro boy. In intellectual ability, George is superior. Given the interest, ambition, and opportunity, he would be likely to succeed in a professional school. But in George's small home town, employment for Negro boys is limited almost exclusively to unskilled and low-paid jobs. George left school at fourteen. He has been doing odd jobs, and vaguely planning to move to Detroit or southern California to get factory employment at wages that seem very high as compared with the local standards. Yet, since these are faraway places and it is hard to find out exact information, George may settle down within the limitations of his own community.

Gertrude tries hard to succeed in school, but she is not very popular among teachers or classmates. She always receives poor grades. Her father and mother both have irregular, unskilled, poorly paid work by the day. They resent the fact that their daughter is prevented by the school attendance law from helping with the support of the family. Gertrude is rarely dressed attractively; she never has any spending money; she has never won any distinction or recognition in school or elsewhere. The school psychologist says she is just barely above the moron level of intelligence. She has applied for a work permit and, if she gets the permit, will probably accept the first job that is offered to her.

Norman is gifted with distinctly superior intelligence. He is ambitious and industrious, successful and happy in the academic high-school course. He wants to study medicine and is determined to do so, although he and his parents will have to struggle desperately to scrape together enough money to pay the full costs of college and medical school.

Norman's sister, *Norma,* is two years younger and fully as intelligent and as industrious as her brother. Unfortunately, she contracted poliomyelitis in infancy and, although she had good medical and nursing care, she is badly crippled for life. She thinks she could succeed in certain phases of library work if there were some way for her to obtain the training. But if Norman goes to college, the family cannot possibly send Norma as well.

Herbert, too, is a brilliant and agreeable student. His father "owns" (subject to a heavy mortgage) a rather poor and run-down fruit farm. Herbert now attends a four-teacher rural high school. His assignments for homework this weekend are:

English	*Julius Caesar,* Act III
Algebra	Deriving the formula for the rth term of a binomial expansion
Latin	*Caesar,* Book I, lines 65-72
American History	The War of 1812. Memorize the principal battles and the names of the opposing commanders.

Herbert doesn't think he wants to go to college. Schoolwork, he says, is easy enough but "it doesn't get you anywhere." He will graduate next year and then help his father or get a job on another farm.

James thinks he knows exactly what he wants to do; he wants to "go into aviation." He has fair mechanical abilities and average intelligence. His middle-class parents want their son to have "a better education than we did" and they think it would be nice if James could graduate from college and become a teacher, or a minister like his Uncle William.

Russell and *Victoria,* brother and sister, live on a Kansas farm with their widowed father. Their mother died five years ago. By industry and good investments the father has built up a substantial estate and income. The two children are now his only interest in life; he is proud of their good looks and good school records; he wants to keep them living with him. Russell has no vocational plans except to help his father. Victoria looks forward to an early marriage, an arrangement of which her father is quite unaware.

Martha is a Negro girl, daughter of a tenant farmer. Ignorant, cheerful, and improvident, she has no occupational plans, or plans of any kind for that matter. Following the tradition in her community Martha left school at an early age, will help at home for a few years, and will probably marry in her early teens.

Here also is *Leonardo,* a quiet boy with marked artistic talent.

Here is *Harold,* also an artist, but unfortunately an artist in petty larceny. The patrolman in his block and the juvenile court judge know well his sullen, indifferent face. Harold is convinced by now that crime doesn't pay unless it is organized on a large scale.

Here is *Gretchen* who arrived in this country a few months ago on a refugee ship.

Here is *José*, son of Mexican itinerant farm laborers.

Here is *Helen*, daughter in the second American-born generation of Japanese ancestry.

Here is *Helene*, the most popular girl in town—brilliant, beautiful, full of energy, a young genius in organization and leadership.

Here is *Lancelot*, a young man with an unusually disagreeable disposition and a definitely low intelligence whose wealthy parents want him to go to law school.

Is the task of providing education for all American youth a hopeless one? Can any program or series of programs be devised that will meet all, or even a majority, of these bewildering human needs, complicated as they are by vast differences of economic circumstances?

The task is indeed complex; it is not for that reason unmanageable. It certainly cannot be performed by any one single organized form of educational experience. It cannot be met without the expenditure of money, effort, and time. It cannot be met by an educational policy which concludes that, because a given youth leaves a given kind of school, the youth is *per se* uneducable or wayward.

The task can be met: first, by identifying the major types of educationally significant differences found among American youth; second, by noticing the equally significant characteristics that all or nearly all youth have in common; third, by devising and inaugurating educational programs and organizations that provide for the common needs of all youth and the special needs of each individual.

How Youth Differ

At least eight categories of educationally significant differences are illustrated in the above descriptions of Max, Gilbert, Martha, and the others:

1. Differences in *intelligence and aptitude* will exist, regardless of modifications in the environments of individuals. While certain portions of these differences are inherited, even these cannot be predicted from parentage. These differences require different educational procedures, content, and standards of speed and achievement.

2. Differences in *occupational interests and outlooks* are both desirable and necessary. They require guidance to match abilities against the requirements of the job, desires against opportunities. They require curriculum adjustments that provide the necessary preparation for thorough workmanship in all occupations. They require administrative arrangements that will remove or minimize undemocratic "social-status" distinctions among occupational fields and their corresponding educations.

3. There are differences in *availability of educational facilities,* differences caused either by location of residence or family economic status. The elimination of these differences is an entirely practicable matter of administration and finance, involving the proper organization and location of schools, and the provision of transportation and student-maintenance facilities, of state and federal equalization funds, and of public or private scholarship funds.

4. There are differences in the *types of communities* in which youth reside. Insofar as these differences are educationally significant, they can be met by a guidance program providing information and outlooks which transcend community barriers, and by curriculums which are adjusted to the needs and opportunities of diverse communities.

5. There are differences of opportunity resulting from differences in *social and economic status,* often aggravated by differences in *race.* The removal of such inequalities is a difficult matter, often requiring basic social and economic changes in the community. Yet, even so, these differences can be measurably reduced by wise educational leadership and administration, and by the objective study of community problems in schools.

6. There are differences in *parental attitudes and cultural backgrounds.* In many cases, cultural differences can be utilized for valuable education purposes. In other cases, where differences give rise to conflict or jeopardize the proper development of children and youth, the undesirable effects may be minimized through a program of home visitation and parent education.

7. There are differences in *personal and avocational interests.* Within reasonable bounds, these differences may well be encouraged by a broad curriculum with opportunities for some selection of studies.

8. There are, finally, differences in *mental health, emotional stability, and physical well-being.* Extreme disabilities must be compensated for in special schools and classes. Other temporary or less

serious deviations from normal health may be met by appropriate adjustments in curriculum and regimen and by remedial health instruction and school health services.

What Youth Have in Common

The common qualities of youth are fully as important to education as their differences. For example:

All American youth are citizens now; all (or nearly all) will be qualified voters in the future; all require education for civic responsibility and competence.

All American youth (or nearly all) are members of family groups now and will become members of other family groups in the future; all require an understanding of family relationships.

ALL AMERICAN YOUTH

1. Are citizens
2. Are family members
3. Are products of American culture
4. Need physical and mental health
5. Must learn to earn their living
6. Are capable of rational thought
7. Must make choices—good or bad

All American youth are now living in the American culture and all (or nearly all) will continue to do so in the future; all require an understanding of the main elements in that culture.

All American youth need to maintain their mental and physical health now and in the future; all require instruction to develop habits of healthful living, understanding of conditions which foster health, and knowledge of ways of preventing disease, avoiding injuries, and using medical services.

All American youth will be expected to engage in useful work and will need to work to sustain themselves and others; all therefore require occupational guidance and training, and orientation to current economic conditions.

All American youth have the capacity to think rationally; all need to develop this capacity and, with it, an appreciation of the significance of truth as arrived at by the rational process.

All American youth must make decisions and take actions which involve choices of values; all therefore need insight into ethical values. Particularly do they need to grow in understanding the basic tenet of democracy—that the individual human being is of surpassing worth.

When we write confidently and inclusively about education for *all* American youth, we mean just that. We mean that all youth, with their human similarities and their equally human differences, shall have educational services and opportunities suited to their personal needs and sufficient for the successful operation of a free and democratic society.

These youth are created male or female, black or white, halt or hale. Birth and environment have tended to make some of them more alert or more shrewd or more bold than others. Environment and education have made them rich or poor, law abiding or delinquent, employed or idle.

Their names are Dumbrowski, Oleson, Cabot, MacGregor, Veschinni, Adamatoulous, Okada, Chin, Valdez, Descartes, Kerchevsky, Schmidt, Smith, and Smythe.

They reside in farmhouses, cabins, trailers, packing boxes, skyscrapers, tenements, hotels, housing projects, houseboats, dormitories, mansions, prison cells, and just plain houses.

Among these youth are many of great potential talents. The American system of education has laid great stress on the development of these talents, wherever they may be found, for the benefit of the nation as well as of individuals. In the years to come, the nation will stand in even greater need of the leadership, the resourcefulness, and the creative abilities of its most capable citizens; and education must prize and cultivate their talents accordingly.

These youth—all of them—are to be the heirs and trustees for all that is good or bad in our civilization. What humanity will achieve a generation hence depends largely on them and on their education now. Each of them is a human being, more precious than material goods or systems of philosophy. Not one of them should be permitted to be carelessly wasted. *All* of them must be given equal opportunities to live and learn.

☆ ☆ ☆

This Commission believes that, in the main, educators and lay citizens alike want the schools to adjust and extend their services so as to meet all the educational needs of all youth. Tradition, to be sure, and some vested interests impede change in education, as in every other institution. But, for the most part, these impediments do not arise from any active opposition to educational advancement. They will be largely swept away by a vigorous movement to shape education to the needs of all youth, as that movement gains increased momentum.

Given the proposition that secondary education should serve *all* American youth, the chief difficulties are practical. We must plan education for youth in a greatly altered world, the character of which we cannot yet accurately foresee. And in this partially unpredictable world of the future, we must plan to carry education into areas largely unexplored. Facing these uncertainties, we are tempted to postpone planning, to counsel waiting until the outlines of the future world become more clear.

We must not wait, however. Events move too swiftly and on too vast a scale for us to be able to cope with them when they are almost upon us. Of some things we are already reasonably sure—the needs of youth, for instance. Others we can predict with some confidence, such as the distribution of employment among the major occupational fields. On a few matters we shall have to hazard conjectures—for example, the volume of private and public employment available for beginning workers.

Furthermore, a considerable body of tested educational experience is available. Much of it is still scattered, to be sure, in pioneering schools throughout the land. But these experiences could readily be brought together and placed at the disposal of everyone.

We will do well, then, to make our plans at once, using all that we know and all that can be reliably predicted; making conjectures now and then, when no better way appears; and revising our plans from time to time to accord with the changing course of events. Better by far to do this, tentative though it may be, than to keep on waiting for the certainty which never comes.

PREVIEW OF THE NEXT SIX CHAPTERS

As a contribution to educational planning, we offer the next six chapters, in which we propose to describe school services for youth as we should like to see them in the years to come. All six of the chapters are written from the point of view of an observer who reports the conditions which exist in three imaginary, but representative, secondary-school environments. Not all of the conditions described now obtain in any actual schools, today. Our portrayal is, rather, a synthesis of practices now in effect in part within many good schools throughout the nation, gathered together for the sake of unity and emphasis. It is assumed that the developments here set forth have taken place largely within the years just prior to and since the end of World War II.

In the next five chapters, we shall describe the schools for youth in two selected communities in the state of Columbia—in Farmville, a rural area with a country village as its center, and in American City, a city of 150,000, which is the industrial and commercial center of a larger region.

In the chapter which then follows, we shall tell how the state of Columbia, as a whole, endeavors to assure opportunity for adequate education to all its young people.

Farmville and American City are not regarded as typical of all American communities or of all American education. Even two hundred such descriptions could not wholly represent the great variety of American life. But there are thousands of communities much like Farmville; there are hundreds similar to American City; and the educational principles applied to Farmville and American City are applicable in any community.

The state of Columbia is not considered typical of all American states. Indeed, there is no such thing as a typical state. Some states already have many of the elements of the state system of education to be described in this chapter. Other states, in order to establish such a system, will have to make fundamental and far-reaching changes in their state departments of education, in their state school finance system, in their minimum educational programs, in the organization of their school districts, and in their school laws. The important things are the *principles* embodied in the educational system of the state of Columbia. Diversity among the states in the details of organization and program is to be expected and encouraged, provided that the underlying principles are sound.[1]

In a word, *these descriptions are not blueprints; they are samples.* Let no one suppose that they are intended to be instructions or models handed down from "national headquarters." They are offered, rather, in the hope that they may stimulate and aid the planning and action which are already under way in many states and communities, and which must soon be undertaken by all.

The point of view from which these six chapters are written may be summed up in a few sentences. Schools should be dedicated to the proposition that every youth in these United States—regardless of sex, economic status, geographic location, or race—should experience a broad and balanced education which will (a) equip him to enter an occupation suited to his abilities and offering reasonable opportunity for personal growth and social usefulness; (b) prepare him to assume the full responsibilities of American citizenship; (c) give him a fair chance to exercise his right to the pursuit of happiness through the attainment and preservation of mental and physical heal[illegible]d) stimulate intellectual curiosity, engender satisfaction in intellectual achievement, and cultivate the ability to think rationally; and (e) help him to develop an appreciation of the ethical values which should undergird all life in a democratic society. It is the duty of a democratic society to provide opportunities for such education through its schools. It is the obligation of every youth, as a citizen, to make full use of these opportunities. It is the responsibility of parents to give encouragement and support to both youth and schools.

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[1] See also: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938. Chapter III, "The Administration of Public Education: State School Administration."

These plans for schools of the future contain many departures from common practices in schools. But the Commission has included only those additions and changes which, in its judgment, are feasible from a financial point of view and practicable from an educational point of view. These are not the schools of Utopia, to be achieved in some remote, indefinite future. **These are schools of the United States of America, as they can be in the third quarter of the twentieth century.**

CHAPTER 4

FARMVILLE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

DISTRICT CHARACTERISTICS AND YOUTH NEEDS

A GREAT many people live in Farmvilles of the United States—more than in New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, Los Angeles, Detroit; more, indeed, than in the nation's one hundred largest cities put together. For the Farmvilles are rural America—the 54 million people who in 1950 lived in the open country, at the crossroads, and in rural villages and towns under 2500 in population. These people constituted 36 percent of the total population of the United States.

Farmville people raise many valuable products, without which the rest of us could not live—corn, wheat, potatoes, soybeans, grapefruit, sugar cane, cotton, timber, hogs, cattle, and chickens. But by far the most valuable product of Farmville is children, and in producing children the people of Farmville quite surpass their city cousins. In 1950 the 33 percent of the nation's adults in rural areas had more than 42 percent of the country's children and youth (ages under twenty-one).

The Lean Years of the Thirties

The years of the thirties were hard years for the people of Farmville. The markets for most farm products shrank with the world-wide depression. People in cities and people abroad could not buy all that the farmers were able to produce. So there were large surpluses of many crops, and the bottom dropped out of prices. Nature, too, seemed unfriendly during these years. The droughts of 1934, 1936, and 1939, a succession of disastrous floods, and the destructive dust storms in the West plagued large sections of the country. Farmers' incomes, never high in comparison with those of city dwellers, dwindled to the lowest point in many years. Farm debts mounted, and many owners lost or sold their farms. Tenancy, sharecropping, and day labor increased while the incomes of tenants and farm laborers fell.

Yet in spite of adversity the thirties were also years of progress. One of the greatest values which they yielded was almost a by-product. All over the nation, committees of farmers were organized and went to work to help carry out the federal agricultural programs in their own districts, and to plan other ways of meeting their common problems. These years of experience in community cooperation at the "grass roots" made it possible for the people of Farmville to act quickly and effectively for community improvement in the years after World War II.

Moreover, some rural communities made notable advances in educational and social services, despite the lack of funds—thanks to the efforts of resourceful, persevering men and women. This decade saw the rise of some remarkable rural schools, dedicated to the betterment of the life of all the people of their communities, and operated at no more than the ordinary costs of rural schools because of the devoted and sacrificial service of principals and teachers. There were pioneer achievements in other fields as well. Bookmobile traveling libraries appeared in several states. Rural health clinics and public nursing services were established in some districts. Farmers' cooperatives multiplied—cooperatives for buying expensive equipment, for producing and marketing foods, for purchasing electric power, for canning and freezing food for home consumption, and many others. Many such enterprises were initiated or aided by rural schools. In many schools the students and teachers worked quietly but effectively to exterminate mosquitoes and rodents; screen the windows and doors of farmhouses; build sanitary toilets; increase home production of vegetables, eggs, and milk; build and operate shops for repairing farm machinery; and transform woods and fields into recreation areas. These accomplishments, scattered though they were, became widely known and influenced the thinking and planning of many people.

Yes, the thirties were hard years for the people of Farmville. But during those years were sown seeds of progress which have come to fruition in the Farmville community of today.

The Strenuous Years of the War

The war brought great changes to Farmville. Its first demand, beginning in 1940, was for men to work in war industries and to serve in the armed forces. It drew men and their families away from farms and villages to the cities. From 1940 to 1943, some 2,500,000 people moved away from the farms to work in the cities and to enter the Army and Navy.[1] It was chiefly the young men who left the farms, but young women and older people went, too, in large numbers.

Migration to the cities was well under way before a second war demand became insistent—the demand for increased agricultural production. When the United States entered the war, it became apparent at once that more food was needed than ever before in the nation's history, and that it was needed quickly. More agricultural products were needed in industry, too. And some crops, hitherto imported, now had to be grown at home.

Here was a national problem of first magnitude—more farm products were needed to carry on the war, fewer workers were available to produce them. To the credit of the people of rural America, the problem was met with success. Workers were found to take the places of many who had gone to cities and entered the armed forces; and the production of farm workers was increased by greater use of labor-saving machinery and wider application of scientific knowledge. In both cases, education played an important part.

Under the Victory Farm Volunteers program, several hundred thousand boys and girls from the cities—often accompanied by their teachers—went out to farms during their summer vacations to work where they were most needed, particularly in harvesting perishable crops. The economic products of this work were not its only values.

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[1] Data supplied by the U. S. Department of Agriculture.

Many city youth gained an understanding of farm life and labor which no amount of book study could have produced. The experience left its mark on the programs of many city schools—on that of American City, for example, as we shall see in the next chapter.

Along with the recruiting of farm labor went the increased use of labor-saving machinery and improved farming methods. Fortunately, the manufacture of farm machinery and equipment was not greatly reduced during any of the war years save one, and the supply of parts for replacement was cut scarcely at all. A nationwide program of education was launched, financed by the federal government and carried on through the public schools. In rural schools throughout the nation, farmers and farm youth were instructed in the uses of farm machinery and in its repair and maintenance. Under these conditions, the number of tractors and tractor-drawn machines in use increased slowly but steadily during the war, and has grown still more in the postwar years. Today in the Farmville Secondary School we shall find the farm machine shop in a place of first importance.

Scientific advances, too, were speeded up all along the agricultural line—in processing and preserving foods, in the development of higher yielding strains of crops, in control of insects and diseases, in fertilizing and cultural practices, and in livestock breeding and feeding. Education went hand in hand with scientific progress, and the public schools, the agricultural colleges, and the Department of Agriculture all helped to train farmers in the practical uses of the latest scientific developments. This program, too, has continued unabated through the postwar years.

The Years of Prosperity and Hope

The period immediately following the end of World War II was the most prosperous the people of Farmville had ever known. Contrary to fears that markets and prices would decline quickly with the return of peace, farmers found themselves enjoying increased demand and better prices. Farm production and income both reached the highest points in history in 1948. While slight reversals occurred in 1949 and 1950, production and income in these years were still above wartime levels. Although costs of production rose during the period, profits were generally good. Wages paid to farm workers in 1950 were three times the 1935-1939 average. As compared with the remuneration of labor in industry, however, farm wages were still low.

There were two reasons for Farmville's prosperity in the early postwar years. One was an enlarged domestic market for farm products; the other was an enormous need for food abroad.

Throughout the war, food purchases among the people of the United States had been restricted by rationing. These restrictions occasioned no genuine physical suffering, but they were psychologically irritating. City people, entirely dependent upon retail food markets, felt them more keenly than did people on the farms. When, at war's end, rationing was lifted, most Americans looked forward with enthusiasm to an uninhibited diet. Years of full employment, good wages, and accumulated savings made possible greatly increased buying. Demand for food products so far exceeded available supplies that prices, already high, rose sharply. Despite high prices, however, people were soon eating an average of 5 percent more food than they had done before the war.

This pent-up desire for an unlimited fare gave promise of continued well-being for the farmers, but it also aggravated a serious international situation. Immediately after the war, a worldwide food crisis developed abroad. Vast numbers of people throughout Europe and Asia were in grave danger of starvation. Revolution and political chaos threatened in many countries. As the principal area from which surplus food could then be obtained, America's farmland became the center of hope for sheer survival among millions. Hardly had our people loosened their belts for a long awaited feast, when they were asked to tighten them again. Amid constant appeals for food conservation came threats of a return to rationing.

In much the same fashion in which America had aided its allies through the lend-lease program during the war, it now established a program to assist in the economic recovery of desperately needy nations. As a part of this program, great quantities of agricultural goods were sent to all parts of the world. In the crop year ending June 30, 1947, the United States exported more food than any country had ever shipped in a single year before—some 19 million tons. In each of the three following years, this gigantic exportation was exceeded. During the first five years after the war, about 13 percent of the food produced in the United States went to foreign countries.

The people of the Farmvilles throughout the nation met the great postwar demands for food both gratefully and energetically. But they kept a sharp eye on the prospects for the future. If it could be avoided, they did not propose to be caught unprepared by a recession like that which followed the first world war. Until 1949, the government issued urgent requests for maximum food production of most crops, but from 1944 onward farmers tended to reduce crop acreage slightly. There was a small expansion in 1947 to meet the foreign emergency. For the most part, however, increased production resulted from more efficient operation, an enlarged use of farm machinery, skilful conservation of the soil's resources, and favorable weather conditions. By 1949 and 1950, planned major reductions in planting were approved by the Department of Agriculture. Government-owned grain stocks had grown appreciably, and the hitherto needy countries had largely restored their agricultural economies.

In 1951, it was evident that the food emergency had passed. Although exports at a high level would undoubtedly continue for a long time to come, rural America now looked forward to a prosperity based primarily upon domestic needs. There were 20 million more mouths to feed here at home than there had been in 1940; the country's population had grown twice as fast during the war and postwar years as during the previous depression decade. Industry and business were active; wages and profits in cities were at an all-time high. Whether inflation, which was the most serious threat to the nation's economy, would get so badly out of hand as to bring on the long dreaded recession was still a question. If it should do so, the farmer was better prepared to meet it than ever before. His operations were more flexible because of mechanization and the use of scientific methods. He could reduce production when necessary

UISE F. DENNEY

with greater ease and less loss. More important, perhaps, than anything else, he had at last won legislative recognition of the inherent hazards of his occupation. Whatever happened to the volume of demand, the price he got for his product would be maintained at a profitable level through federal support. The war had shown the people of the nation that the Farmvilles were vital to military and economic security, both as sources of food and of industrial materials; their welfare must hereafter be guarded with care.

During the early postwar years, some of the people who had left the farms and villages returned. Some, of course, were those who naturally wanted to get back home now that the war was over. About three out of four of the 2,400,000 men who had left to enter the armed services were back by the beginning of 1947. Other people, dissatisfied with the crowding and inadequate housing of the war industry centers, yearned for the open spaces in which they had been reared. Still others came back because the farm appeared to offer great economic attractions—if one knew something about farming. A few young people, brought up in the city, who had worked on farms in wartime, came to the farms because they liked farm life.

Not so many returned as had gone, however—not nearly as many of the younger people. Most of the youth stayed in the cities, and it was well that they did so, for rural America, even under the most prosperous conditions, could not have found places for them all.

The need for farm labor, in fact, has been steadily reduced since the war as a result of continuing technical advances. Improved labor-saving machinery has been available in abundance, and many farmers have been able to buy it. The scientific developments of the war years have been advanced still further and applied more widely, thereby increasing the yield of labor. Transportation and marketing facilities have been greatly improved. Electricity has been carried into tens of thousands of farms and farm homes—and with it, labor-saving electrical appliances.

So, as soon as the first postwar back-to-the-farm wave passed, the regular flow of youth from farms and villages to cities was resumed.

During the early years of World War II rural communities were hard put to it to keep the educational and social services which they had. Large numbers of teachers, doctors, and nurses moved to cities or entered the armed forces, and it was difficult, often impossible, to replace them. It was out of the question to think of building new schools or other public buildings during these years because of lack of materials.

Farm people, however, were not unmindful of their community needs during the war. Nor did they fail to see that their improved economic state would soon bring improvements in home and community life within their reach. As the end of the war drew near, in community after community someone came forward to call people together and invite them to consider how, with more money at their disposal than they had ever had before, they could provide better schools for their children, better houses for their families, better health services, recreational facilities, and cultural opportunities for everyone. The people, many of them already accustomed to working together on matters of common concern, responded not only with plans but also with action. Through the years that have followed, this process of building for the good life in rural communities has gone on apace. The states and the federal government have helped in many ways, but credit for the advances in rural community life belongs chiefly to the people of the Farmvilles.

Now, as we write, the prosperous "post-conversion" period has passed. New international problems have arisen which are so threatening to the nation's security, and to the continued freedom of liberty-loving peoples the world over, that, although fewer than seven years have elapsed since VJ Day, World War II seems already very far behind us. Whether the tensions of the 1950's will result in a third great world conflict, we do not know. In Farmville, as everywhere throughout the land, we can only prepare resolutely for the worst, do all that we are able to promote peace, and finally, hope for the triumph of wisdom and brotherhood over ruthless ambition.

What the coming years hold for agriculture no one can foresee. That will depend chiefly on the course of world affairs. As long as defense preparations are necessary, demands for agricultural products will be greater than normal. If war strikes once more on a world scale, the farmer's role will again be one of hard, devoted work to feed the industrial workers, the armed forces, and many people in foreign countries. If peace triumphs, the greatly increased and increasing population will call for larger food supplies. Industrial uses of agricultural commodities will multiply, in variety and volume. Recent years have seen farming become a much more efficient operation than it used to be; this trend will surely continue. Improved techniques of production must be accompanied by increasingly effective measures to conserve soil and water resources if agricultural output is to keep up with expected mounting demands in the decades ahead. All predictable domestic factors, then, seem to presage a security and prosperity from which Farmville can plan its future with confidence.

Today, as we look at the thousands of Farmville communities, we find here a substantial proportion of the nation's people enjoying, on the whole, a higher stable level of prosperity than they have ever known, with better houses, better schools, better health services, better recreational and cultural facilities than they have been able to provide hitherto. There are some exceptions, of course. There are still large areas well below such a fortunate state, and there are individual exceptions in every community. Though the future cannot be predicted with certainty, the outlook is generally promising—provided that, in the meantime, the rural population does not greatly increase.

But farm and village people do have large families. And the families are largest in the sections least able to support population increases. Unless the rural birth rate drops sharply, a large proportion of rural youth will have to move to towns and cities, not only this year and the next, but for as long a time as we can see into the future. In order to keep the rural population between twenty and sixty stable in the nation as a whole, it is estimated that forty-six out of every hundred farm youth and thirty-three out of every hundred youth from villages and rural towns should go to the cities.[2]

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[2] U. S. Department of Agriculture estimates.

This fact, one can readily see, presents the educators of Farmville with one of their most difficult problems.

INTRODUCING THE FARMVILLE SECONDARY SCHOOL

In one of these Farmvilles—it might be any one of thousands—we find the Farmville Secondary School. With its 800 boys and girls, its modern buildings, spacious grounds, and adjacent farm lands, this school is the outstanding institution in a village of about a thousand people. It draws its pupils from an area of nearly two hundred square miles.

The area which is now the Farmville school district was formerly divided into five small districts, each with an eight-grade elementary school and two with small four-year high schools. Several years ago, the recently organized Farmville Community Council addressed itself to the question of consolidating the smaller districts. Myron Evans, the new principal of the village high school at Farmville, took the lead in bringing this matter before the council, for he, more than anyone else, realized how far his little school fell short of meeting the needs of the youth of the countryside. He was warmly supported by several parents on the council.

With the help of the state department of education, a careful study was made of the advantages and disadvantages of consolidation, of the area and population which could best be served by a consolidated school system, and of the probable costs of buildings and operations. The council favored the union of the five districts, with a single secondary school and three elementary schools, each from kindergarten through sixth grade. Its recommendations were approved by the voters of the districts.

Then came the work of planning for the new secondary school. Before the architect's drawings could be made and the costs estimated, it was necessary to decide whom the school should serve and what sort of educational program it should offer. For months these matters were discussed in meetings of the new board of education, of the community council, and of parents and other citizens' groups. Mr. Evans and his little staff of teachers worked industriously on the program planning and spent many of their evenings meeting with the board, the council, and the other groups. Requests for help were made to the state department of education and to the schools of education in the agricultural college and the state university, and much valuable counsel was received from the staffs of these agencies.

A Single Institution Serves the Entire Period of Youth

In the end, it was decided that the secondary school should include eight grades, from seven through fourteen, and that it should also provide educational services for out-of-school youth and adults. Plans for the educational program were fashioned, taking account —as we shall see in a moment—of the differences between the early and the later years of adolescence. Moreover, it was decided that the new school should serve as the community recreational center and that space should be provided to house other needed community services, particularly a library and a health center. Only after these matters had been agreed upon did the board proceed with plans for the building and for financing the construction.[3] It is five years now since the new secondary school was opened, with Mr. Evans as its principal.

NOTE TO READER

The narrative form which prevails in this document does not carry the typical, organized continuity of a textbook. Whenever it is desirable to bring the various treatments of certain topics together for separate consideration, the reader is referred to the indexes at the back of this book: the index to selected topics on page 384 and the general index, which begins on page 385.

Some 360 pupils in the Farmville Secondary School are in Grades VII, VIII, and IX. About the same number are in tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades for school attendance is now required until the eighteenth birthday.[4] There are eighty students in Grades XIII and XIV—chiefly boys and girls who expect to remain in Farmville and become farmers, merchants, homemakers, mechanics, office workers, and salespeople. In addition, many young people are served by the school through its program of adult education and recreation.

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[3] Plans for the building were subject to approval by the state department of education, since the state law required the state department of education to prescribe and enforce the observance of certain minimum standards in the construction of school buildings. The program of instruction, particularly in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades, was likewise required to meet the minimum standards set by the state department of education. See Chapter 9 for further discussion of these matters.

The entire period of youth is thus encompassed within a single institution. Within the school, one finds no hard-and-fast divisions, but rather a continuous program suited to boys and girls from twelve to twenty, changing with the changing needs and interests of maturing youth, and sufficiently flexible to permit adaptation to students who differ somewhat from the average.

Meeting Common and Divergent Needs

Early Adolescence. Grades VII, VIII, and IX might be called the period of the common secondary school. The educational needs of boys and girls from twelve to fifteen are, on the whole, common to all. Hence the curriculum for these three years is, in its broad outlines, the same for all pupils, though with ample opportunity within each class for the teacher to take account of differences among individuals. During these early years of adolescence, the pupil continues to grow:

In knowledge and understanding of the world in which he lives;
In ability to think clearly and to express himself intelligently in speech and writing;
In his mastery of scientific facts and mechanical processes;
In his capacity to assume responsibilities, to direct his own affairs, and to work and live cooperatively with other people;
In intellectual, occupational, and recreational interests;
In understanding of the processes of physiological and emotional maturing, and in habits of healthful living;
In greater insight into his own abilities and potentialities.[5]

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[4] The state law now requires attendance until the eighteenth birthday or the completion of the twelfth grade, whichever is earlier. Productive work outside the school may be counted as school attendance, when it is a planned part of the youth's educational program, and when the school staff supervises the work.

[5] Since this volume is a description of the education of youth in their later teens, our references to education before Grade X will hereafter be only incidental.

Later Adolescence. In the later years of adolescence—from sixteen to twenty or thereabouts—some of the important interests of individual students diverge. Most striking are the differences in occupational interests. Some youth look forward to farming, some to business, some to mechanical occupations, some to medicine, teaching, nursing, or engineering, some to a military career, and some to homemaking. At the present time, the great majority of male youth will have a period of military service. Whatever the interest may be, whether the time of employment be near at hand or still remote, a youth rightly feels that he wants a part of his school experience to advance him on his way to entering the occupation of his choice.

Among older youth, moreover, one frequently finds diverse intellectual interests, which are of great significance for education. Here is a boy who enjoys mathematics for its own sake, and another fascinated with literature. Here is a girl who spends many extra hours in the science laboratory because of sheer intellectual curiosity, and another no less devoted to music.

Marked differences also appear in recreational interests, which run the gamut from athletics to reading, from art to woodcraft.

In these three fields—occupations, intellectual pursuits, and recreational interests—the curriculum of Grades X through XIV is differentiated to suit the needs of individuals. Each student, aided by his counselor and teachers, develops an educational program consistent with his purposes and capacities.

In other fields, however, educational needs continue to be predominantly common to all youth. Most notable is the common need of all youth for education in the responsibilities and privileges of citizenship. Youth also have common needs for education in family living, in health, and in understanding and appreciation of the cultural heritage. In these areas, the curriculum of the upper grades is substantially the same for all students, and adjustments to individual needs and abilities are made within the classes.

Normally the first half of the tenth grade is the time when a student moves on from the common curriculum to the partially differentiated program. As we shall see shortly, this is a time of intensive guidance and planning. No student is compelled, however, to make choices before he is ready to do so, or to postpone his decisions until he reaches tenth grade. Within a flexible program, continuous from Grades VII through XIV, it is possible to suit the time of transition to the varying ages at which students mature. There are some youth who, at fourteen or fifteen, are already well started on courses preparatory for occupations or for college. And occasionally one finds a student who, at seventeen or eighteen, has not yet "found himself" and is still pursuing a course designed to help him reach an intelligent decision regarding his future.

Attendance at school, as we have noted, is now required until the completion of twelfth grade.[6] Up to this point, the Farmville Secondary School endeavors to provide educational services for all its students, whatever their plans for the future may be. In Grades XIII and XIV, however, and in its program of education for out-of-school youth, the school attempts to serve only those youth who expect to remain in Farmville or other rural communities, and who do not intend to study in colleges or universities. All others—those who plan to work in the cities and those who look forward to education in colleges and professional schools—are advised to leave the Farmville school at the end of the twelfth year, and to continue their education in one of the state's eleven community colleges[7] or in a four-year college or university.

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Boys and girls in Grades X, XI, and XII have reached the age (fifteen to eighteen) when youth are thinking seriously about their vocations and their plans for becoming self-supporting. On the basis of careful studies of the local situation, the school staff knows that approximately 40 percent—fifty youth in each class—should leave the Farmville district to continue their education and find their work in the cities. Farmville simply cannot support them. Furthermore, they should leave soon, preferably after completing the twelfth grade, for Farmville has little to offer them in the way of work or education after they are eighteen—and they should not waste precious years in aimless efforts.

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[6] Or the eighteenth birthday, whichever comes earlier.

[7] Here, and elsewhere in this volume, the term "community college" refers to a free public educational institution, offering two years of education beyond the twelfth grade, in a variety of fields, both vocational and nonvocational. For most students, the course in the community college is "terminal," that is, it marks the end of full-time attendance at an educational institution. Some students, however, move on from the community college to professional schools or to the upper two years of liberal arts and technical colleges. The community college also conducts the program of part-time education for out-of-school youth and adults. The American City Community College will be described in some detail in Chapter 8, and the system of eleven community colleges in the state of Columbia will be described in Chapter 9.

But human beings, especially American boys and girls, cannot be expected to conform exactly to desirable statistical patterns. Here is what the boys and girls in the new Farmville Secondary School's three graduating classes have actually done. Of every hundred who have completed Grade XII,

18 have continued at the Farmville school through Grade XIII only.

24 have continued or expect to continue at the Farmville school through Grades XIII and XIV.

16 have dropped out of full-time schooling, but have remained in the Farmville district.

16 have gone away to university, agricultural college, teachers college, or liberal arts college—some to return later to Farmville, some to remain away.

17 have gone away to one or another of the state's eleven community colleges, for one or two more years of education before going to work in cities.

9 have gone directly to work in cities, dropping out of full-time schooling.

Who should go to the cities to stay? Who should go away to college or university and come back into rural America to be teachers, doctors, dentists, lawyers, pastors, librarians, nurses, county agricultural agents, home demonstration agents, foresters, farmers, and farmers' wives? Who should stay on in Farmville? And how is this Farmville Secondary School, forty miles from the nearest city of any size, to offer an educational program that will be equally helpful to those who are going to be farmers and village merchants; those who are going to the cities to find jobs in industry, commerce, and transportation; and those who are going on to professional schools of law, engineering, medicine, education, and agriculture? These are some of the questions which the school staff, the board of education, and the parents of the Farmville district have been trying to answer through the program of their school.

GUIDANCE IN THE FARMVILLE SECONDARY SCHOOL

The keystone of the school program is guidance—personal assistance to individual boys and girls in making their plans and decisions about careers, education, employment, and all sorts of personal problems.

Guidance is no mechanical process, whereby counselors and teachers sort out boys and girls as a grading machine sorts apples—this one to stay on the farm, that one to work in an airplane factory, this one to be a teacher, that one to run the local garage. Guidance is rather the high art of helping boys and girls to plan their own actions wisely, in the full light of all the facts that can be mustered about themselves and about the world in which they will work and live.

Guidance is not the work of a few specialists. It is rather a service from the entire school staff, which requires some people with special knowledge and skills, but enlists the cooperation of all.

Guidance is not limited to vocational matters. It includes the whole gamut of youth problems. Guidance, moreover, is not peculiar to the secondary schools. Good education from the earliest grades onward includes guidance from understanding teachers, principals, and counselors.

Important new factors enter into guidance as boys and girls move into the later teens. During the years just ahead, most of these youth will make plans and decisions with far-reaching effects on their lives. They will have to decide what occupations they are going to enter, whether they will stay in the Farmville district or move away; what education they want and where to get it; when to go to work, where, and at what jobs; whether to marry soon or wait a few years; and so on. For each decision, plans must be formulated and carried out. All are important, and more often than not they are interwoven.

The requirements for the good counselor are many. First of all, he must have understanding of young people and their problems, grounded in scientific knowledge, yet shot through with sympathy and the ability to look at life through the eyes of boys and girls. He should have some special training in counseling methods, mental hygiene, and the discriminating use of tests and measurements. When vocational matters loom so large, he should have accurate knowledge about occupational opportunities, requirements, and preparation. He must have ample time for conferences with pupils, parents, and employers. And not least in importance, he must be thoroughly familiar with the purposes and program of his school, and able to work closely with teachers throughout the school.

Most teachers have some of these qualifications, some have all—save possibly the ample time. And in any school, a good share of counseling will be done by the teachers in their classes and through informal conversations with students.

At the Farmville school, however, it is believed that guidance is more effective when it is shared between the teachers and staff members for whom guidance is a chief responsibility. So we find four counselors in the school—two men and two women. All four were formerly classroom teachers. Each of them still teaches at least the equivalent of one course. They were chosen because, as teachers, they showed unusual interest in guidance, seemed to have the personal qualifications for effective counseling, and were willing to take the necessary special training. Each counselor is responsible for advising about two hundred students, or about one-fourth of each class from Grade VII through Grade XIV.[*]

In Grades VII, VIII, and IX, guidance is chiefly the work of classroom teachers. Counselors remain largely in the background, working with and through the teachers. They use these years to become acquainted with their students individually, and to gather information about them from many sources. They observe their students in classes and shops and on the playground, confer with their teachers, study their performances on various tests, and follow their health records. They arrange occasions for talking with parents and for visiting in homes. From time to time they converse informally with their students, encouraging them to tell of the things they do best and like most to do, as well as of their difficulties and problems. They are particularly careful to pass on to teachers any information which may be helpful to them. Only rarely, when problems of unusual difficulty arise, do they counsel their students directly—and then only by arrangement with the teachers concerned.

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[*] Approximately thirty students each for Grades VII through XII, and twenty students for Grades XIII and XIV together. A student normally will continue with the same counselor from the time of his entrance into Grade VII until he leaves the Farmville school, but changes may be made in the interest of students.

As the students approach the end of the ninth grade, the counselor assumes a larger share of direct responsibility for guidance. He arranges a leisurely conference with each of his students on questions which will be faced under more urgent circumstances the next year. Counselor and student talk together about the student's interests and hopes for the future; about the plans and ambitions which his parents have for him; about the possibilities for a satisfying occupation in Farmville and elsewhere; and about the educational opportunities available to him in the years ahead. They go over the record of his school history, review the things in which he has succeeded and those in which he has not done so well, and discuss the significance of his performances on tests. They compare his abilities with his interests and plans. They talk about the rewards of various occupations—the satisfactions of social usefulness and personal growth, as well as the returns in money. The counselor never urges a premature decision. He is well satisfied if the student is started on the process of studying himself and relating his interests and abilities to the facts of the world at work.

The counselor does more. He skilfully guides the conversation until the student and he are talking about other satisfactions—those that come from friendships, from happy family life, from health and active play, from carrying one's share of the load as a member of the community and a citizen of the nation, from the enjoyment of beauty, and from intellectual achievement and growth. As they talk, the counselor tries to help the student understand that the school is here to help him grow in achieving *all* these satisfactions —both now, while he is still a student, and in the years to come.

By the time his students are ready for tenth grade, the counselor knows that Jerry Black is the youngest of three sons; that his father's farm will barely support one family; that his oldest brother has married and started farming as a tenant, while the second son is working in the village; that Jerry has average intelligence, better than average mechanical ability, a satisfactory achievement record, and a strong interest in things mechanical, currently focused on airplanes. He knows that Marie Stewart is an only child; that her father, who has the most productive farm around Farmville, wants her to stay at home and marry someone who will take over the farm; that her mother wants her to go away to college and realize the unfulfilled maternal ambitions to be a musician; that Marie, who has superior intelligence but has seldom used it, doesn't want to be either a farmer's wife or a musician, but does want to get away from home and have a chance to live her own life. He has comparable information about Ernest Mathews, son of the operator of the Four Corners Garage; Nellie Bowers, one of four children of a farm laborer; Enid White, physician's daughter; Howard Daniels, the most intelligent boy in his class, whose widowed mother runs a small dry-goods shop.

Studying the World at Work

When they enter the tenth grade, the 120 boys and girls of the class go to work directly on their educational and vocational plans. One of their major activities during the first term is the study of "The World at Work." This serves a number of purposes. It acquaints pupils with their own dependence on the labor of farmers, workers in factories and transportation, clerks, managers, homemakers, physicians, engineers, teachers, public officials, mechanics, carpenters, and many others. It yields a better understanding of the way in which the economic system is operated. It promotes appreciation of the necessity of labor in human society. It fosters respect for all useful work well done. And it helps pupils to become familiar

TENTH GRADE "WORLD AT WORK" STUDY IN FARMVILLE'S SECONDARY SCHOOL

1. Purposes—to acquaint Farmville youth with:
    - a. Their own dependence upon the work of others
    - b. The necessity for, and dignity of, labor
    - c. The operation of our economic system
    - d. Facts upon which to base their vocational plans.

2. Supervised school and community activities:
    - a. Bringing up to date the "Survey of Occupations"
    - b. Examining local work opportunities
    - c. Studying requirements of various kinds of work
    - d. Estimating the number of annual work openings
    - e. Investigating work advancement possibilities
    - f. On-the-job observing of local work practices.

3. Four supervised visits to American City each year:
    - a. Visit 1: All students go through a factory to become familiar with machine production
    - b. Visit 2: All students observe commercial firm operations—buying, selling, accounting
    - c. Visit 3: All students view professional and public services—hospital, health center, welfare bureau, community college, public employment service
    - d. Visit 4: Groups of students explore personal interest fields—law, beauty shop, radio and television, hotel, restaurant, newspaper, etc.

4. Classroom and library activities:
    - a. Reading books and pamphlets on occupations
    - b. Group and panel discussions, and reports
    - c. Instructional films on agriculture, manufacturing, commerce transportation, marketing, professions.

5. Teaching staff:
    - a. "World at Work" instruction and study is not limited to one teacher or department
    - b. The study involves teachers of mathematics, agriculture, English, science, health, machine shop, home economics, and business education.

with the facts about the chief occupational fields, among which their choices are likely to be made.

Far from being a "book course," this takes the students at once into their own community. Each year the tenth-grade classes, under supervision of their teachers, bring the occupational survey of Farmville and vicinity up to date. Here the students examine the occupations represented in their own district, the types of jobs available in each, requirements in the way of ability and training, the number of openings each year, and possibilities of advancement. Surveying goes beyond the mere gathering of facts. Students have both time and opportunity to observe the practice of occupations with which they are not already familiar.

Four times during the year, the tenth-grade students visit American City, a large industrial and commercial city some forty miles away. There, with the aid of counselors from the American City schools, they observe some of the industries, commercial establishments, and professions. On the first visit, everyone spends several hours in a factory, following the manufacturing process from beginning to end and observing the duties of the various kinds of workers. Regardless of occupation, it is believed, everyone should be familiar with machine production. So also with business. On the second visit, all go to one or another of the larger commercial firms, where they can see the operations and workers involved in buying and selling goods and keeping accounts. The third visit supplies a sampling of professional and public services—the Good Samaritan Hospital and public health center, the office of the county welfare director, the American City Community College, and the public employment service. On the fourth trip, students visit in smaller groups according to their special interests—some going back to places visited earlier, others exploring new fields, such as law, beauty shops, radio broadcasting and television, hotel and restaurant operation, and newspapers. Those with interests in occupations not well represented in American City may arrange to visit in other cities.

Field work is supplemented by class study and discussion, and by reading in a well-stocked library of books and pamphlets on occupations. Particularly helpful are the bulletins on occupational trends, opportunities, and requirements, now issued regularly by the U. S. Office of Education in cooperation with other federal agencies, with supplements for the state supplied by the state department of education.

Motion pictures are frequently used, and to great advantage, especially after pupils have had some firsthand experiences in observation. Recently developed instructional films make it possible to show the main operations in an entire manufacturing industry, a business, a transportation system, or a profession, in the course of from one to three hours for each subject, with a thoroughness which would not be possible in a brief visit. Through films it is also possible graphically to show the markets of local products and the sources of things purchased, and to demonstrate the economic interdependence of the Farmville community and many other parts of the nation and of the world.

The study of "The World at Work" is a project of the entire tenth-grade teaching staff, rather than of one teacher or department. Teachers of mathematics and science, for example, undertake to acquaint students with the nature and requirements of scientific and engineering occupations, as well as to show the uses of mathematics and science in other occupations; so also with teachers of English, health, agriculture, home economics, machine shop, and business education.

The Educational Plan for the Individual

Meantime, students and counselors continue to confer. Often they agree that further tests of aptitudes and interests will be helpful, and they study the results of these tests together. Health records are examined, and if unremedied defects are found, the school physician is called in for advice. Many of the activities during this first year, both in and out of classrooms, are exploratory in character, designed to discover students' capacities and to awaken their interests. All the tenth-grade teachers, therefore, share in this diagnostic process. Their information is pooled with that of the counselors at periodic staff conferences.

Sometime during the year, each student is asked to work out a tentative educational plan, carrying through the twelfth grade, and to discuss this with his parents and his counselor. Some students are ready to plan after two months; some may need six. As early in the process as possible, the parents are asked to come to the school, and student, parents, and counselor go over the matter together. This is repeated at least once, sometimes several times, as the plan takes form. More often than not, the teacher in the field of the student's major interest joins these conferences. This plan usually includes a vocational choice, but it may not. The school will not require such a choice until the student is ready. Experience has shown that the making of a plan helps to give the student a sense of purpose and direction in education which may otherwise be lacking.

When plans are well suited to the student's interests and abilities, there is less need for subsequent individual attention by counselors. A large share of guidance in occupational matters is then taken over by the teachers in the field of the student's chief interest. But the counselor continues to keep in touch with each student, his teachers, and his parents, and is particularly alert for new problems. Like the family physician, he is available at all times to any student who has a problem requiring immediate attention. Students' plans are regularly reviewed toward the end of each year and are frequently revised. Sometimes they are remade completely. Parents are consulted whenever a major change seems advisable.

Other Duties of Counselors

The counselor has many other duties. One of the most important is to work with teachers. This is a two-way process. From teachers he gathers much information which is helpful in understanding students and in locating their needs and problems. To the teachers he furnishes information which helps them to fit their class work more exactly to students' needs. Never does he permit his office to become a "bottleneck" for information which should be in the possession of teachers. When Marie Stewart is struggling with the problem of parental domination; when Frank Hood is recovering slowly from a long illness; when Jennie Harkness is so engrossed in her first serious love experience that her schoolwork is being neglected; when Howard Daniels is on the point of changing over from distributive occupations to a course looking toward law—these facts should be known, and known promptly, by all the teachers who work with Marie and Frank and Jennie and Howard; and it is the counselor's responsibility to see that they are known promptly.

The counselors are in general charge of part-time employment of students, whether in school or out. They cooperate with other teachers in arranging for the supervised work experiences which are integral parts of the educational programs of most students. And they are alert to see that work opportunities are available to students who need money to meet their personal expenses.[9]

State law requires school attendance until the age of eighteen. That age—in most cases the end of twelfth grade—is another time of major decisions for Farmville youth. Several choices are open to them. They may leave school at once for full-time work. They may continue in the Farmville Secondary School for one or two years, for advanced training in agriculture, homemaking, or other occupations of the Farmville area, and for continuation of general education. They may go to the community college at American City,[10] or to some similar school offering advanced training in industrial, commercial, and other occupations, as well as preprofessional courses. Or they may enter a university or a four-year college. The last half of Grade XII is, therefore, a period of intensive guidance, definitely pointed toward next steps. Valuable assistance is given by counselors from American City, who spend some days at Farmville to confer with youth who plan to enter the professions and other careers in the cities.

Guidance for "Out-of-School" Youth

The Farmville counselors, of course, continue to advise those who remain in the school through Grades XIII and XIV. They are also responsible for the school's "follow-up" guidance service for those who leave the Farmville school, whether they remain in this district or move away.

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[9] See pages 71-73 for a discussion of work experience and pages 160-64 for a discussion of student work and income.

[10] See footnote 7, page 17, for a statement regarding community colleges.

Here the counselors try to steer a middle course between two dangers. On the one hand, there is the danger of prolonging the dependency of young people of eighteen, nineteen, and twenty, who should be moving rapidly toward independence and self-direction. On the other hand, there is the danger of "turning young people loose" and leaving them to find their way unaided into the next step of their lives at a time when they may be in greater need of educational services and competent counseling than they were as full-time students.

So, when youth leave school and remain in the Farmville district, the counselors keep in touch with them until they feel that they are well on their way in the next step, whether that be farming, business, or homemaking. Many of these youth are "self-starters." They know what they want to do and how to start doing it; and when they need help, they know where to go and how to get it. They often come back to talk with their former counselors and teachers, to ask for information or advice, to enrol in adult education courses, or to request that some new course be offered. Others need more individual attention. Some need help in finding their first jobs, in getting started on their farms, or in making a beginning of home life. Some decide, after a year or two in Farmville, that they will have better opportunities in the cities.

In any case, the counselors and teachers have found that the school can be of great help to "out-of-school" youth by providing part-time and evening classes in agriculture, homemaking, and business; by arranging for correspondence instruction; by sponsoring clubs for young farmers and young homemakers; and by supplying competent advice on such matters as loans, government programs, present and prospective employment opportunities, home planning, and the care of small children.

Over 40 percent of the Farmville youth, we must remember, leave the district on completion of twelfth grade—some 33 percent for education elsewhere, 9 percent to work. The first group—those who continue their education—require attention from Farmville counselors only until they have made the acquaintance of counselors in the colleges or other institutions which they attend. Those who go directly to work in cities need to be followed more closely. They, more than any other Farmville youth, are likely to have difficult problems of adjustment during their first year out of school. Fortunately, most city school systems—like that in American City—now have special counselors for out-of-school youth. The Farmville counselors make it a point to see that each one of their young people who goes to work in a city is promptly put in touch with one of these youth counselors.

EDUCATION SUITED TO INDIVIDUAL NEEDS

At best, however, guidance is only a means to an end. It will avail the student but little to work out an individual plan for education unless he is in a school in which that plan can be carried out. It will profit the counselor and teacher little to define the needs of individual boys and girls unless they are able to provide education to meet those needs.

Flexibility in Curriculum and Instructional Methods

The Farmville Secondary School has, therefore, sought to make its curriculum and methods of instruction so flexible and adaptable that each youth may pursue that course which seems best suited to his abilities, his occupational plans, his personal interests, and the conditions of his present and future life as citizen, worker, and family member.

This effort, on the whole, has been successful in spite of many practical difficulties. The obstacles would have been far greater, perhaps insuperable, under an unyielding system of grades, credits, promotions, and accrediting to higher institutions. Research studies had shown that diagnostic tests of intelligence and other abilities, coupled with the judgments of teachers as to personal qualifications, provided at least as reliable a basis for predicting college success as did the customary record of credits and grades. This was confirmed by several large-scale experiments in the thirties. Experiments had also shown that students who had followed any of a number of well conceived experimental curriculums in high schools had performed at least as well in college as had their paired fellow students who had taken the regular college preparatory courses.

Changing Bases for College Admission

World War II experiences necessitated certain rather fundamental changes in methods of admission to colleges and universities. Under pressure of war manpower needs, the schools of medicine, dentistry, engineering, and education accelerated their programs and modified their requirements for admission. Many liberal arts colleges, facing the possibility of sharp decreases in enrolment, did the same. The armed forces, in search of officer candidates and technicians, instituted a nationwide program of qualification testing for high-school seniors, which took precedence over the customary high-school credits and grades in the selection of young men to be sent to colleges and universities for training. Later, the Army and Navy sent thousands of men from the enlisted ranks to colleges and universities. Graduation from high school was required, but not from college preparatory courses. When the war ended, numbers of now mature men and women from the armed forces, who were not high-school graduates, were admitted to colleges and universities under Public Law 346, popularly called the "G. I. Bill of Rights," on the basis of evidence of educational accomplishments while in service. The effects of the G. I. bill throughout upper secondary and higher education have been far-reaching. Six and one-half million veterans had taken varying amounts of education or training under the G. I. bill by 1950.

All these war-time and postwar experiences, taken together, somewhat modified the practices of admitting students from high schools to higher institutions. There was a movement away from the strict use of credits and grades in prescribed patterns and sequences and toward the use of tests and examinations in broad fields; and appraisals by teachers and principals in such characteristics as industry and maturity.

Recent increases in the armed forces, following the Korean outbreak of 1950, have focused attention on the question of relating college attendance to military service. Proposals for a clearer national policy on educational deferment of military service and for federal aid for college attendance to those who have completed military service were widely discussed.[11] Such measures, if adopted, will further increase the need to re-examine the whole college admission question.

Curriculum Provision for Individual Needs

To return to Farmville. This school continues to use the class as the chief unit for organizing instruction. But classes are viewed as tools of education, and like all tools, they have to be shaped to their uses. The schedule of work and the methods of instruction in each class are suited as nearly as possible to the needs of the students. Many classes are composed of students with half a dozen or more focal points of interest. A class in science, for example, may include five boys who look forward to farming, six girls with a common interest in homemaking as a career, four boys interested in automotive and mechanical work, one who expects to study medicine, two who want to enter commercial aviation, a girl talented in music, two girls who plan to teach, two boys and a girl headed toward business, and four who have no definite vocational interests. Add to this variety of interests a range of I.Q.'s from 85 to 135, and the need for diversification of instruction is evident.

These boys and girls have many common needs in their study of science. For example, they all need to understand science in relation to personal and public health, as an important factor in the improvement of many aspects of home and community life, and as a constantly effective cause of far-reaching changes in agriculture, industry, transportation, communication, warfare, and, ultimately, in international relations and world organization. They all need to understand the methods of scientific experimentation and to develop a scientific point of view. In many other respects, their needs are divergent—especially their needs for knowledge of scientific facts and their applications. Class time is divided between work by the group as a whole, to meet needs common to all, and projects carried on by smaller groups and individuals in accordance with their particular needs.[12]

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[11] Educational Policies Commission and Executive Committee of the American Council on Education, *Education and National Security*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission and the Council, 1951.

The principle of suiting curriculum and methods to the educational needs of individuals is operative throughout the school. We shall meet many other examples, as we become acquainted with the programs in vocational education, citizenship, family living, health, recreation, literature, and the arts.

Values of Systematic Study and Intellectual Achievement Preserved

Let us be clear on three points. The Farmville school has not abandoned required learning in favor of free election by every student. Large areas of the school program are required of all students—areas dealing with civic competence, health, family life, and the cultural heritage, for example. These are areas of common need for all youth, but the students who work in these areas are not identical in their abilities, their backgrounds, or their plans for the future. Within each class, therefore, teachers are alert to the differences between students and attempt to provide learning experiences which are "tailor-made" for the individual. That is one reason why students commonly take part in planning the work of their courses, and why committees and small-group and individual projects are so frequently used in classes—as we shall see in a few moments.

The Farmville school has not abandoned sequences of learning in order to cater wholly to current interests. But the sequences are made to suit individual students, rather than to conform to textbooks or prescribed courses of study. That is one reason why so much importance is attached to students' educational plans. For in making his plan, the student, under guidance, learns to map his own sequence of learning experiences by which he can move most efficiently from where he is to where he wants to be.

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[12] See pages 129-32 for further discussion of science in the Farmville school.

Superior Students

Nor does the Farmville school neglect its students who have superior capacities for intellectual achievement and leadership. Quite the contrary. Farmville teachers well know that the complex problems of the present uncertain world will require the best efforts of the best minds, disciplined to thorough study and clear thinking. They are quite aware that today's America needs competent leaders as never before. Because students' programs are individualized, the student of superior intelligence is encouraged to work well beyond the average of the class; and if he has special interests in government, history, science, mathematics, or in any other field of study, he is allowed extra time to pursue those interests. Because students carry so many responsibilities in the school and in the community, the student with unusual qualifications for leadership is helped to develop those qualities, and with them a sense of the public obligations of leadership.[13]

The Student's Personal History Record

In place of the former system of credits and grades, the Farmville school has developed the student's personal history record. Here one may find the student's educational plan and the record of his progress in carrying out that plan. Here also are written statements from each of his teachers, summarizing his specific achievements in each of his courses, and appraising his initiative, industry, reliability, and other personal characteristics, as well as his abilities. Here are records of measured performance on tests of intelligence and aptitudes, on tests of occupational skills based on employment standards, on tests of essential information, and on tests of civic competence, such as ability to apply principles and generalizations and to reason logically in dealing with social problems. Here are reports of his employment experiences, including farm, business, and home projects which he has managed himself, accompanied by appraisals from his employers and supervisors. Here is found his record as a citizen of the school and the community—not merely a list of offices and activities, but descriptions of the services which he has rendered, the group projects in which he has taken part, and the leadership which he has displayed. Here also his counselor has added those items of personal information which he considers relevant to the youth's success in employment or in advanced education—items such as hobbies and health. In short, this personal history is designed to be equally useful to the student himself, to a prospective employer, to the admissions officers of a university, or to the counselors in the community college in a city.

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[13] See: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Education of the Gifted*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1950.

Evaluation of Success and Failure

Accomplishments are measured and recorded as objectively and accurately as possible. Success and failure, however, are relative to students' abilities. A student of limited ability may carry out a plan suited to his capacities and come to the end of his school career with a merited feeling of satisfaction. This does not mean that his accomplishments will qualify him to enter professional school or to get a job as a skilled worker. It does mean, however, that he has achieved the things which he, with the aid of his counselor and teachers, set out to do. He has undertaken an educational program within his powers and has carried it through. Such an experience of success is the right of every child and youth, whether he be endowed with five talents or with one.

For the student who plans to enter a college or university which still requires a specific program of high-school studies and fixed grades in certain courses, he and his counselors and teachers anticipate these requirements so that his personal history record will include the necessary admission data. In this event, the student will, of course, have to meet academic standards comparable to those maintained in any traditional secondary school.

There are occasions of failure, too, at Farmville. When a student falls short of carrying out his educational plan, that is taken as evidence that more effective guidance is needed. It may mean that the plan is too ambitious in relation to the student's ability, and needs to be revised to come within his reach. It may signify that the pupil is working far below his ability. In either case, the problem is one to be approached through counseling. More often than not, the cause is located and the remedy applied. Neither skilful guidance nor good teaching, however, is a panacea. When counselors and teachers have done their best, a student may yet persist in doing far less than he is able to do. When this occurs, the school must enter the fact on the student's record, while it continues its search for causes and cures.

PREPARING YOUTH FOR OCCUPATIONS

Most Farmville youth, like most youth everywhere, want to become self supporting and independent through their own labor. They want to work, and they want their work to be something more than the means of earning a bare subsistence. They want to be able to look forward to advancement and increasing income if they do their work well, whether they work for wages or manage their own farms, stores, or shops. They have seen their parents work, they have worked themselves, and they know that toil is a necessary part of life. But they also know that work is not all burdensome, that even routine labor may be interesting if one is interested in the products of one's labor.

These things are true of girls as well as boys. Not all the Farmville girls, to be sure, expect to work for wages or salaries. But many do, for a few years at least; and a few think of working permanently. The majority expect to marry soon and live on farms and in the villages. From their own experience, these girls know that independence and self-support for the Farmville family depend on the work of the wife as well as the husband. Most Farmville families are still economic units, with all their members working to produce at least a part of the goods and services which they consume.

Farmville youth have many other interests. They like to play football and baseball, to date and dance, to sing and swim, and to go on picnics. Their basketball team is as good as any in the state. Their band and chorus go to the state music festival. They send delegations to conventions of the Future Farmers of America, the 4-H Clubs, and church young people's societies. Boys are interested in girls, girls in boys, and many of them are beginning to think seriously about possibilities of marriage. But here they encounter the problems of work and self-support. A young man wants to have a job, or a farm and some money to run it, before he assumes the responsibilities of marriage. And apart from marriage, boys and girls alike need money for clothes and personal expenses in order to be at their best in the social and recreational activities of school and community. Many of them have to work for that money, because even in good times the cash incomes of farm families will often not support such expenses. Many of them want to work, because of the sense of independence and self-direction which they gain.

Farmville youth are interested in citizenship, too, as we shall see presently. But citizenship education in Farmville begins close to home and close to the process of making a living. It commences with group activities in the school which frequently involve production of goods or services and management of business activities. It extends out into the community through a variety of school services, some of which are designed to increase productivity and wealth. Many of these activities provide occupational as well as civic training for youth.

Citizenship education is extended beyond the community into the region, the nation, and the world, as boys and girls follow the ramifications of their occupations—getting firsthand experience with the government agricultural programs and services; observing meetings of county agricultural committees and service clubs; becoming familiar with farmers' organizations, in their national as well as local settings; studying organizations of labor and employers along with those of farmers, and seeing the influences of these various groups on governmental policies; following closely the actions of the federal government and of the United Nations, in order to understand the likely effects on the occupations in which they are interested.

These activities are not the whole of citizenship education, but they are a sufficiently important part to show that there is no sharp separation between preparation for an occupation and growth in civic understanding and responsibility. As youth progress through the Farmville school, there is an increasing integration of activities in vocational training, social studies, and community services, each supporting the other.

The Farmville school, therefore, looks upon youth's prime interest in occupations as an educational need to be met and an educational opportunity to be seized. By successfully meeting the need for occupational preparation, the school may also open the way to more effective education for citizenship and personal development.

The school's occupational survey of the Farmville district shows the number of people employed in each occupation.[14] It shows the number of openings likely to occur in each field each year, due to deaths, retirements, and expansion of employment. Since homemaking is one of the major occupations of Farmville's graduates, the survey also includes data on family life in the community—the number and sizes of families, distribution of ages at which marriage takes place, housing facilities for new families, and the like. In addition, the school has recent reports of employment conditions and trends in the main occupational fields for all nearby cities and for the state, and also the national and regional reports issued by the federal government. From all these data it is estimated, as we have seen, that about three-fifths of Farmville's boys and girls may expect to support themselves through work in rural areas and that two-fifths should go to cities. These facts are well known to pupils and parents, teachers and counselors. They are carefully considered when educational plans are being made. Further than this the school cannot go, nor does it attempt to. For the right to choose one's occupation and one's place of residence, though not written in the Bill of Rights, is one of the most important and jealously guarded of the American civil liberties.

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[14] The occupational survey is conducted annually by tenth-grade pupils. See page 54.

The youth of Farmville fall into three distinct groups with respect to their occupational plans:

First, those who expect to remain in Farmville or in rural communities. For these farm and village youth, the school seeks to provide occupational training through Grade XIV, which will prepare them to move at once into adult employment.

Second, those who are going to the cities to work in industry, business, transportation, and other fields—in positions which do not require college or university preparation. The Farmville school undertakes to carry this group well along the road of occupational training; but its staff and equipment are inadequate for complete preparation. These youth must go to American City or elsewhere for advanced training in Grades XIII and XIV, and occasionally in Grade XII.

Third, those who look forward to study in colleges and universities as preparation for the professions and comparable occupations. These youth remain in Farmville through Grade XII. The school endeavors to supply educational experiences relevant to the vocational plans of each student but leaves preprofessional training for the community colleges, the four-year colleges, and the universities.

Let us now examine the occupational preparation of each of these.

Youth Who Expect To Remain in Farmville

Those who remain in Farmville will work chiefly in four fields. Two-thirds of the boys, on the average, will be farm owners, tenants, or farm laborers. Practically all the girls will be homemakers, though some will work in stores and offices before marriage, and a few will work afterward. Some boys will work in garages and machine repair shops, some in stores and offices. Now and then there will be an opening for a postal employee, a school bus driver, a beauty parlor operator, a carpenter, an electrician, or assistant in the library or health center.

Vocational education therefore falls largely into four fields—agriculture, homemaking, business, and mechanics. These are not rigidly defined curriculums, with prescribed courses. Rather, they are occupational areas, within which the school attempts to offer the instruction needed by youth, and within which boys and girls work out individual plans for the training which best meets their needs. Farmers need to know how to repair automobiles, tractors, and other farm machinery; and village mechanics frequently operate small farms. Boys, as well as girls, have a practical interest in home planning, family budgeting, and the production and preservation of foods for home use. Farmers, as well as storekeepers, need to know how to keep accounts, secure credit at reasonable interest rates, and make out government reports. Rural merchants, as well as farmers, need to understand government programs for price stabilization and crop loans. The plan of each student for vocational education is not a listing of courses, but rather an inventory of experiences which will best help that particular student to attain his occupational goal. Thanks to the flexibility of courses and schedules, it is usually possible for each student to secure these experiences at the times when they are most needed.

Indeed, the term "course" in its conventional use is a misnomer for much of the work in vocational education. What the school actually offers is a series of projects, each including a variety of skills and operations, each combining practice, training on the job, and class instruction. For example, the school operates a shop for the repair of farm machinery. Here boys learn to repair mowers, disk plows, seeders, and tractors brought in by farmers who pay for the cost of new parts and materials. Every boy who expects to farm spends enough time in the shop to learn to care for his own machinery. But some boys, who expect to become shop mechanics, continue for several years, learning how to do the more highly skilled work, how to manage a shop, how to order parts, keep accounts, and compute costs. Again, much of the food for the school lunches is produced and processed locally. Families are allowed credit on the cost of their children's lunches for food grown at home, frequently by the children themselves. Other food is grown by students in the school gardens. This food supply must be planned in accordance with consumption needs. Much of the food must be canned, frozen, or dehydrated as it is received, and stored for future use. Other food must be purchased commercially. Daily menus must be planned, food must be prepared, inspected, and served. Accounts must be kept, bills paid, costs computed. A large share of the work is done by students, under the supervision of teachers of home economics, health education, agriculture, and business education. This project alone supplies a wealth of training in nutrition, food preparation, gardening, accounting, and business management for dozens of girls and boys each year.

In addition to special skills, boys and girls learn business management, office practices, the operation of cooperatives, and ways of raising their standards of living by increasing production from their farms and back yards. There are many other group projects—for home improvement, for community improvement, and for improvement of the school itself—in which a variety of skills may be learned—carpentry, electric wiring, masonry, woodworking, furniture making and repairing, weaving, rug hooking, home decoration, ornamental gardening, and so on.

In addition, many pupils have individual projects, planned jointly with their teachers and their parents, which occupy a part of their time throughout the year. These projects, well known to all familiar with the 4-H Clubs and the vocational agriculture and homemaking programs of rural schools, provide valuable training for farming and homemaking and frequently are sources of income for youth as well. The school also operates a farm on nearby land, for students interested in farming who live in the villages. Boys and girls may rent portions of this land, purchase stock and seed on credit, and raise poultry, livestock, vegetables, and other crops, as a part of their school program. To be sure, they face the hazards of loss as well as profit, but they learn some principles of collective security by operating a mutual insurance fund for protection against loss by reason of disease, insects, and weather. There is no insurance, however, against loss resulting from incompetence or neglect.

Reading, class instruction, and laboratory work are no less important in Farmville than in other schools. But they are scheduled as needed on the projects to provide background information and to clarify principles and generalizations. The mechanics of internal combustion engines is taught while a tractor motor is being rebuilt.

Study of the chemistry of soils accompanies the preparation of ground for planting. Study of the physics of electricity grows out of practical work on the uses of electricity on the farm and in the home. Nutrition is studied when girls are planning menus for homes and school lunches. Boys and girls who are about to take over the accounts of a cooperative are psychologically ready for instruction in bookkeeping. Experience in purposeful reading and writing accompanies many projects—for example, reading directions on care of farm equipment and writing letters to request information.

Productive work experience in the Farmville educational program is an essential part of all the several learning activities just described. Work experience is a matter of learning to apply oneself continuously and industriously to a job, learning to work under supervision, learning to meet high standards of performance. Practically every boy and girl in the Farmville school has an abundance of work experiences. Students engaged in repairing farm machinery, operating a refrigeration plant, installing farm electrical equipment, planning and preparing school lunches, keeping the accounts of a cooperative cannery, or raising their own poultry and livestock are learning to judge their work, not in terms of credits and grades, but by their ability to produce useful goods and services. Wages may or may not be paid for such work. They are not essential to work experience.

There is this difference, however, between the work which the students usually do in and around the school and the work of adults. In the case of students, the most important consideration is what youth learn. The production of goods and services is incidental to learning. Beginners are necessarily inefficient; achievement is measured in terms of growth; and when an acceptable standard of efficiency has been attained, the youth is moved on to another project—for there is much to learn. In adult employment, whether for wages or for oneself, production is the chief consideration. Some training is usually required, both at the beginning of employment and as work continues; but here learning is incidental. Success in office, shop, factory, or on the farm depends in large part on one's efficiency in producing goods and services. In all except the unskilled occupations, this means the worker must bring at least basic skills to his job.

So we find that most of the Farmville youth include in their school programs a period of work in which their chief purpose is to produce goods or services for wages or for sale. There are no uniform requirements, save those of the laws relating to the labor of minors. Each plan is made to suit the individual. The boy who expects to leave school at the end of the compulsory period must, of course, schedule his work project for Grade XI or XII. Those who plan to continue at the Farmville school through Grade XIII or XIV usually place the work project later. Those who look forward to preparation for urban occupations in the community college in American City or some other city generally prefer to get their employment experiences in urban communities. The job may be part-time and extend over a period of a year or two years. Or it may occupy most of a student's time through a period of three, four, or six months. In a rural community, where work is at its peak during the summers, many students are able to get their work experiences during the summer vacations.

Jobs are of many kinds, related, as closely as possible, to the youths' occupational plans. Efforts are made to find jobs which afford incentives and opportunities for learning throughout the entire period of employment. Counselors and teachers help to arrange and plan the work. The teacher observes the student while he is on the job, consults with the employer, and, whenever needs for training are revealed, seeks to supply instruction in the school. Some boys work on farms. Some rent land from their fathers or neighbors and run their own farms. Boys and girls work in stores and offices in the village, two or three students often sharing a full-time job. Similar arrangements have been made with the garages and machine repair shops.

There are part-time jobs for three or four girls as home assistants in the village. Several carry on home projects for the production of foods, which they sell either to the school or at the farm women's cooperative market. Each year one or two particularly talented girls will produce marketable craft articles which are sold through a home crafts cooperative.

The counselors and teachers who supervise student employment take care that wages, hours of work, and working conditions are consistent with fair labor practices in adult employment. Students are well informed on such matters through their work in social studies and visits to American City, and are not likely to be exploited through ignorance.

Vocational education in the thirteenth and fourteenth years provides further development of skills and economic understandings. Most of the occupations around Farmville require a wide range of knowledge and skills. The farmer needs to understand animal and poultry husbandry, soils and soil conservation, fertilizers, control of diseases and pests, marketing, the keeping of accounts, and government regulations. He must be able to make ordinary repairs on motors, machinery, plumbing, and electrical equipment, and to do a good share of his own building construction.

The village mechanic has to handle gasoline motors, Diesel motors, automobiles, trucks, tractors, and all sorts of farm machinery from plows to combined harvesters. The electrician is called on to service radios, television receivers, and such electrically operated equipment as milking machines, cream separators, refrigerators, cold storage plants, poultry hatcheries, vacuum cleaners, air-conditioning units, food grinders and mixers, and electric fences. The worker in store or office may have to be salesman, buyer, bookkeeper, typist, and file clerk.

The homemaker needs practical knowledge of nutrition, clothing, child care, hygiene, home care of the sick, home furnishings, and electrical equipment; of the processes of cooking, canning, dehydrating, and freezing foods; and of methods of growing fruits, vegetables, and poultry. In addition, she should have those understandings of child development and human relations and those appreciations of the beautiful and the good which make homemaking a fine art.

One-fourth of a student's time during the three years from Grade X through Grade XII[15] is sufficient only for a part of the preparation needed for any of these occupations. The school staff encourages the boys and girls who expect to remain in Farmville to continue in the school, either as full-time students or in part-time and evening classes. Most of them do so. Some return for an additional year, some for two; while most of those who leave full-time schooling at the end of Grade XII enrol in part-time courses or in the clubs for young farmers and young homemakers which the school sponsors.

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[15] Students learn many things in the earlier grades which are related to homemaking, farming, and mechanical work. But, for reasons explained earlier, this report does not attempt to cover the years prior to Grade X.

Half or more of the students' time in Grades XIII and XIV is spent in study and practice related to occupations, including productive work under school supervision. Vocational education in these two upper grades is directed toward three purposes: to build all-round proficiency in the broad occupational fields of farm and village; to equip students with knowledge of the sciences and mathematics relevant to their occupations, so that they can meet new problems and improve their practices after they leave school; and to help each student more fully to understand the place of his or her occupation in the contemporary economy and culture.

Youth Who Expect To Live and Work in Cities

We turn now to the second occupational group. What has the Farmville Secondary School to offer to its boys and girls who plan to live in cities and to work at jobs below the professional level? What can this rural school do for youth who will be working for airplane and automobile manufacturers, steel mills, food milling plants, oil refineries, mines, department stores, hotels, railroads, airlines, and government agencies—when Farmville has none of these institutions? The members of the school staff are fully aware of the difficulty of the problem. They do not claim to have found the complete solution, but here are their answers to date.

1. Rural boys and girls should be reliably informed about urban occupations as well as rural, before choosing their vocations. The city needs to be stripped of its glamour, on the one hand, and its forbidding grimness, on the other. We have already seen how the Farmville counselors and teachers attempt to apply this in connection with guidance, with the cooperation of their colleagues in Amer-

ican City and other cities, and with the aid of excursions, motion pictures, and the occupational reports of federal and state agencies.

2. Rural boys and girls, who have tentatively chosen urban careers, need to know what qualifications, what training, and what other experiences they will need in order to succeed. Reading, motion pictures, conferences with Farmville counselors and with visiting counselors from American City, and observation during visits to American City and other cities are all intended to help meet this need.

3. Success in occupations is dependent on many factors other than specific vocational skills, such as industrious habits of work, cooperation, reliability, resourcefulness, and the willingness to assume and carry out responsibilities. Farmville students are more likely to develop these qualities by working on projects which have observable value to themselves, their families, their school, and their community, than they are by practicing the operations of occupations which are still remote from their experience.

4. The occupations of Farmville employ many of the basic skills and much of the knowledge needed for work in most urban occupations. In some respects Farmville offers better opportunities than city schools for introductory training in industrial and commercial fields, because it is easier to put students to work on practical jobs involving a wide range and variety of operations. The boy who works in the farm machine shop is learning uses of tools and machines which are applicable anywhere. The girl who handles the accounts and correspondence of a cooperative cannery is learning business practices useful in any office.

5. With the aid of counselors, teachers, and flexible schedules, each student is helped to plan a program of experiences through Grade XII which is clearly related to his occupational plans. In most cases it will be found that Farmville offers no less than the schools of the cities, during these years when basic skills and knowledge are being developed.

Sometimes, however, the school does not supply the experiences which an individual student needs. This is a challenge to staff ingenuity, which is usually adequate to the problem. Out of such situations grew the school beauty parlor and the school printing shop. Occasionally, however, it is advisable to send a student to some other school at the end of Grade XI, or even earlier, so that he may lose no time. The boy or girl must not suffer for the inadequacies of the school.

6. The Farmville Secondary School does not attempt to carry its city-bound students beyond Grade XII. It has neither staff nor equipment for the more advanced training appropriate to the later years. Furthermore, it is too far removed from cities to be able to arrange or supervise employment experiences for youth in training for urban occupations.

Some who leave Farmville at the end of the twelfth grade want to go to work at once. A few have found jobs through friends and relatives; others ask the aid of their counselors, who have contacts with the statewide system of junior placement bureaus jointly maintained by the schools and the public employment service. Whenever a youth goes to a city job, a notice and copy of his school history are mailed at once to the city-school guidance office. A friendly visit from a city counselor follows soon, bringing an invitation to use the guidance and placement services and telling of opportunities for attending evening school.

Some want to enter apprenticeship training for the skilled trades. This usually requires the assistance of the Farmville counselor and the junior placement bureau in the city to which the boy is going. Since supplementary education in schools is required in most apprenticeship training programs, the contact with the city schools is usually assured.

The greater number continue their education in one or another of the public community colleges. That at American City attracts the largest group. It is located in the nearest of the state's larger cities, and offers education in most of the fields in which youth want to work. It has exceptional facilities for study, observation, and practice in the refrigeration and air-conditioning industry and in air, rail, and highway transportation. If, however, a student is interested in public service as a career, he will be likely to go to the community college in the state capital; while for training in glass, ceramics, or plastics industries, he goes to Three Rivers. There are eleven community colleges in the state. They all offer about the same courses in the industrial, commercial, service, and subprofessional fields which employ large numbers of workers. In addition, each one specializes in a few fields, such as those mentioned above, in which the openings for new workers are relatively few. A Farmville youth may choose the school which seems best equipped to offer him the training he desires.

Youth Who Plan To Attend Four Year Colleges and Professional Schools

Farmville has yet a third group of students—those who wish to continue their education after Grade XIV, through college or professional school. Their number is not large—no more than twenty in each class of six times that number. They are, however, an exceedingly important group, for among them is found a high proportion of youth with superior intelligence and unusual capacities for leadership. Some are headed for the agricultural college. Some plan to become physicians, teachers, lawyers, clergymen, engineers, nurses, or research scientists. Some look on college as an opportunity for further mental exploration, and prefer to make only tentative occupational plans while in secondary school.

The principle followed in planning the occupational training of other students is applied here also. Each student, in consultation with his advisers, maps out a program through Grade XII which seems best fitted to his particular plans and needs; and the school staff endeavors to make it possible to follow that program with profit. Because of the diversity of interests among these students, this principle leads toward individualized programs—a striking contrast to earlier practices under which these students would have been grouped together and required to choose between one or two "college preparatory" curriculums.

These students do much of their work with other boys and girls, in classes and on projects which combine activities common to all with opportunities to pursue special interests. Here and there, however, in classroom, laboratory, and library, or out in the community, one finds students working in small groups or as individuals, following interests which are unique. If the school cannot supply teachers qualified to instruct them, it turns for assistance to the correspondence study bureau of one of the state institutions of higher education.

Individualization of programs does not mean neglect of the social aspects of education. In education for citizenship and personal development, these students attend the same classes and engage in the same activities as others. They take part in youth activities in school and community and frequently achieve positions of leadership and responsibility. The school staff realizes the potential value to society of those who are more gifted by nature and who enjoy the privileges of college and university education. It is, therefore, deeply concerned that these youth shall early develop a sense of public responsibility in connection with their careers.

This school, furthermore, is dedicated to the improvement of life in its own community and in rural America. The staff members know that rural communities enjoy far less than their proportionate share of the services of physicians, dentists, nurses, librarians, clergymen, lawyers, recreational leaders, well-trained educators and other professional people. They know that, in the past, most youth who have gone to college from farm and village have not returned. Therefore, they want to be certain that Farmville youth who go to college or university carry with them an understanding of the needs of their own community and of the opportunities for service and leadership which Farmville presents to those who choose to come back.

Accordingly, the chief item on the program of each youth who plans a professionai career is study of the present place of his chosen profession in the Farmville community, and of the needs and possibilities for expanding the services of his profession. This is not separate from the study of the community in social studies classes, which is one of the important elements of the school's citizenship education program. Rather, it is an intensification of the work begun in social studies, especially of those aspects associated with students' career plans.

Students who are interested in medicine and nursing act as assistants in the recently established health center, which is housed in the school. They take part in surveys of health conditions and needs. They are active in campaigns for improved sanitation and the prevention of communicable diseases. They accompany the visiting nurse on some of her rounds and assist the school physician in the health examinations of pupils. In so doing, they gain much information regarding their chosen professions, which is helpful in planning their school programs. No less important is the fact that they learn to look at medicine and nursing as public services for meeting community needs.

Those who are going to the agricultural college work in similar relations with their teachers of vocational agriculture and homemaking and with the county agricultural agent and the home demonstration agent. For prospective teachers, the Farmville Secondary School itself provides unexcelled facilities for the study of the teaching profession as a community service. Such study is stimulated by the local chapter of the Future Teachers of America. Although there are no engineers in Farmville, the effects of engineering are everywhere apparent—in the rural electrification program, for example; in irrigation and flood control facilities; and in the public highway system, on which Farmville depends for transportation. Observations of such facts and of further needs are supplemented, from time to time, by field trips to engineering projects and to the offices of engineers engaged in public planning and construction.

Studies preparatory to professional education are not neglected, but their development waits upon recognition of need. Seldom does it wait long after students have commenced their field work. The boy or girl who is working in the health center usually sees clearly that chemistry and biology are basic to medicine and nursing. The boy who has studied dams and power projects at firsthand knows that knowledge of mathematics and physics is essential for the engineer.

Counselors and teachers have some important functions here. (a) They help the student to understand the *requirements of the professional field* or fields in which he is interested, in terms of intellectual ability, knowledge, skills, and personal qualities. (b) They help the student to *assess his own qualifications* in comparison with the requirements. (c) They help him to plan his work at Farmville in *sequences* which make for the most efficient learning, and which make good connections with beginning work in the colleges. (d) They help him to *master* each unit in his program before he leaves it. Objective measurements are used wherever possible, not for "grading" in the conventional sense, but to help the student evaluate his own progress. (e) They help the student to *move* as *rapidly* as is consistent with mastery, in carrying out his plan of studies. Progress is measured by achievement, rather than by clock-hours spent in class, and true acceleration is thereby made possible.

The repetition of the phrase, "they help the student to do so and so," suggests that responsibility in these matters rests finally with students. So it does. The Farmville Secondary School has no required curriculum of college preparatory studies. It helps each student to plan a course adapted to his abilities and his long-range interests, and to carry out that plan. Most students do well, and come to the end of Grade XII with sound foundational work, well-developed habits of self-direction, and understanding of the relation of what they have done to what lies ahead.

Not all, however. Choosing and planning a career is too complex a matter to be operated on a time schedule. At Farmville, as everywhere, there are boys and girls who do not decide to go to college until late in Grade XII, or even after graduation. There are students whose occupational interests shift once, twice, even thrice in the course of three years.

Insofar as it is possible to avoid it, such students are not penalized. Recommendations to some colleges are based upon general records of achievements and abilities rather than specific patterns of preparation. Most colleges, however, still require at least a minimum record of courses and grades. In order to enter such colleges, students often take further preparatory work in Farmville's thirteenth grade, or attend a community college temporarily. Many four-year colleges and universities have partially adjusted the curriculums of their first two years to accommodate students whose decisions are made late. When admitted to one of these colleges, the student must, of course, spend time on foundational work which he might have done in secondary school had his plans been made earlier.

More serious are the problems presented by students of superior ability who are satisfied with far less than they are capable of doing, and by students of limited ability who insist on trying for professional careers, in spite of evidence that they are not likely to succeed. Under wise counseling and good teaching, such problems are often solved in their early stages. But they sometimes persist, in spite of the best that counselors and teachers can do. Now and then a student, who has refused to heed the warnings along the way, comes to the end of Grade XII to find the doors of professional education closed to him.

When that occurs, the school staff stands ready to help in the necessary readjustments. There is always another chance for the student who sincerely wants one and who has the abilities needed to make good. For the student who lacks the requisite abilities, there is assistance in planning for another career, and in securing the necessary preparation in the shortest time possible. More than this the school cannot do. It is responsible for providing educational opportunities for all youth according to their needs; but it cannot compel all youth to make good use of these opportunities.

CHAPTER 5

FARMVILLE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

CURRICULUM PLANS AND ACTIVITIES

BEFORE the new Farmville Secondary School was opened, the principal and several teachers and board members held conferences with groups of parents and other citizens to discuss the purposes and program of the school. Like many other educators, the principal and the teachers were convinced that the time had come for all schools to make a more determined effort to educate youth for the responsibilities of citizenship. They were not certain, however, that parents would share these views, and were prepared to find indifference, if not opposition. But persuasion was scarcely needed. The citizens of Farmville were ready to agree that citizenship education was of first importance.

EDUCATION FOR CIVIC COMPETENCE

This attitude of rural citizens grew out of their own experiences. Through a decade of depression and the years of war preparation and warfare that followed, they had learned that their welfare was inseparably bound up with the policies of government. The markets for their crops, the prices of their products, the costs of what they had to buy, and in many cases the amounts which they could produce were all influenced, directly or indirectly, by the actions of government. In common with everyone, they had experienced the government's necessary wartime controls of prices, production, consumption, and uses of manpower. When World War II ended, they realized that their ability to continue to live on the land would depend on governmental policies with respect to such matters as foreign trade, tariffs, taxation, price control, crop control, and conservation.

In many other ways, close to home, their lives were influenced by governmental action. Their electric power, their water for irrigation, and their protection against floods—all had their source in a multiple-purpose river development, initiated and financed by the government. Their access to markets was dependent on state highways and interstate commerce policies. Their hopes for establishing a health clinic and a public library, they felt, could be realized only with state or federal aid. Their new school was possible only because the state legislature had authorized the reorganization of school districts and because the state government was now providing equalization funds for a part of the costs of school operation.

Such experiences, of course, might have caused these rural citizens to feel that they were helpless pawns in the hands of powerful forces far removed from their control, dependent on benefits bestowed by others. That did not happen, however. Throughout the depression, World War II, and the uncertain years that followed, farmers and villagers were as alert politically as any group in America. They listened to forums, roundtables, and commentators on the radio. They read newspapers. They met in county agricultural committees, farm bureaus, farmers' unions, granges, service clubs, PTA's, churches, community councils, and extension classes, to become informed, to discuss, and to act. By observation and experience, they became convinced that in our democracy the people can and do govern; that while government may influence public opinion, it cannot for long disregard it; that even in a nation of 151 million people, the individual citizen does count. They also saw that the people, when they are ill-informed or lack a sense of public obligation, can make dangerous and costly errors.

As Farmville's parents talked about these things, and about their sons and daughters and how the school might best serve them, they agreed that they wanted the school to equip their children for the responsibilities of citizenship as no other generation of citizens had ever been equipped. As to how this was to be done, that was a matter for educators to determine.

Now the civic purpose permeates the school. We see its influence in classrooms, shops, health projects, community service enterprises, clubs, councils, and many other places. Because citizenship education is widespread, it is difficult to describe. One cannot put one's finger on this or that course and say, "Here! This is citizenship education in Grade X." One would have to tell of most of the school's program to give a complete report. At first sight, this diffusion might seem to indicate confusion and lack of planning. "Citizenship education," one might say, "has become everybody's business. And what is everybody's business is soon nobody's business." That, however, is not the case. Citizenship education permeates the school because the school staff intended that it should. Citizenship education is everybody's business, because the faculty made it so. The activities of the various classes, projects, and committees fit together into a total picture, because the Farmville teachers plan their work together.

Perhaps one can best understand the Farmville school's citizenship education program if he thinks of it in terms of seven principles set up by the faculty to guide them in their program planning. Here we shall list these principles, and under each, give illustrations to show what the school actually does to develop civic competence. Most of the processes to be illustrated commence early in elementary school, and are well advanced by the time the boy or girl enters tenth grade. The importance of the earlier years is fully recognized. But, since this is a study of the education of older youth, illustrations will be drawn only from the upper secondary school.

Living Democratically in the School

Citizenship education begins with the life of the school. Here, in a society which is familiar and relatively simple, pupils learn the meaning of democracy and the methods of democratic action through direct experience in face-to-face relations.

Out of the many significant experiences, which might be cataloged here as illustrations of this principle, we select three.

Students at Farmville *learn the meaning of respect for the individual,* which is basic to democracy, through experiences of being treated as individuals worthy of respect. Teachers may talk to youth for days without end about democracy being based on "respect for the dignity and worth of the individual"; but they will be speaking meaningless words, unless teachers are at the same time practicing what they teach. At Farmville the guidance services, the suiting of education to individual needs, and the provision of equal educational opportunity for all youth—all described elsewhere in this report—are foundations of civic education, because they supply experiences which are necessary for the understanding of democracy. Youth are quick to sense the attitude of respect on the part of teachers, and are prompt in responding to it.

No less important is the treatment of the student by his fellows. To be sure, teachers cannot compel students to treat one another with respect, but they can create and maintain conditions which foster mutual respect on the part of students, and at Farmville they do so.

Take the student from a family of low income, who might easily be at a social disadvantage. Every Farmville student who needs to has a chance to earn money for his personal expenses. There is no stigma attached to such work. Quite the contrary. For, as we have seen, everyone in the school does some work, and many students work throughout their school careers. Work is an accepted and respected part of school life for all.

Take the student whose intelligence is below average. If the curriculum were composed largely of activities requiring abstract thinking, this student would rarely if ever have a chance to win his classmates' respect for his abilities. The Farmville Secondary School prizes intelligence and encourages its full development and use. But it prizes and seeks to develop other abilities as well. Every student takes part in many activities, such as shop work, community surveys, recreational projects, and enterprises for the improvement of school, home, and community, which utilize a variety of talents—mechanical and artistic skills, leadership, executive ability, and the capacity for sustained hard work. Rare indeed is the student who cannot give a good account of himself in some of these undertakings, and thereby merit the respect of his fellow students.

Or again, take the student from a minority racial group, the student who is sensitive to a physical handicap, or the student who is temperamentally shy and withdrawing. Such students are often shunned or ridiculed by their fellows, sometimes deliberately, more often thoughtlessly. Resentment and attempted retaliation may ensue, and this in turn may breed more intense dislike.

Farmville teachers, from the elementary grades upward, do their best to prevent such vicious spirals from starting. When the spirals do start, they seek to check them promptly. Their approach is positive. They believe that mutual understanding is best promoted when people work together on jobs which seem worth doing, and in which they have a common interest. By the same means, they say, personal dislikes among students can largely be prevented or removed. That is one reason why many of the school's activities take the form of useful projects carried on by small groups of students. In the course of a year, a student will work on a dozen or more such projects and will come to know fifty or more of his fellow students as fellow workers. Rare indeed is the student who remains socially isolated after a few months of such experiences.

Students at Farmville *learn how to share in setting up the purposes, policies, and plans* for the activities in which they engage. The accent here is on the words, "learn how." Throughout the school, activities are planned jointly by teachers and students, always with a view to employing the most effective planning methods. The old separation between "faculty activities" and "student activities" has largely disappeared. We have already seen how students share in planning and carrying out class projects, such as the occupational survey, the farm machinery repair shop, and the school lunchroom. Similar examples will be cited later, in the fields of health, recreation, and family life education. Students and teachers sit together on the editorial board of the school newspaper and on the committees for assemblies and athletics. Students,[1] as well as teachers, are members of the committees responsible for curriculum planning, for health and safety, and for student employment policy. In brief, all the important policy and action groups in the school are composed of teachers and students working together in a relation of partnership; and each such group serves as a laboratory in the ways of democracy through practice.

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[1] For more detailed descriptions of the many ways in which student activities may help to educate youth for citizenship, see: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book in Civic Education.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1940. Chapter IV, "Out-of-Class School Activities," p. 191-261.

Students at Farmville *learn the meaning of "civic responsibility"* by carrying responsibilities which directly affect the welfare of other people. If a student fails to carry out his responsibility, the job doesn't get done, and other people suffer. A farmer's brood of chickens dies; a tractor burns out a bearing just when it is needed for spring plowing; luncheon portions are reduced by half; the school newspaper, containing important notices about meetings, is a day late; an assembly program is cancelled—in each case, because someone failed to do that for which he was responsible. On the other hand, the student who is faithful to his responsibilities has a twofold reward. He receives public recognition for the value of what he has done; and he has the private satisfaction of knowing that he has been of real service to his school or his community. Such consequences are far more effective instruments of teaching than any system of grades, awards, or other extrinsic recognition. The individual student thus learns to take his own responsibilities seriously and students in groups learn to inquire into the competence of those to whom responsibilities are assigned. Both are important among the ways of democracy which youth must learn.

Extending Civic Activities into the Community

The students' direct experience in civic affairs is broadened as rapidly as possible by extending their activities into the local community.

Study of the community begins early in Farmville's schools, and one finds a continuous interplay between school and community throughout the elementary and early secondary years. By the time students reach tenth grade, most of them can begin to take active part in community affairs. The responsibilities which they can carry increase as they proceed through the upper grades.

Sometimes, as in the case of the occupational survey, they take chief responsibility for some community enterprise. More often, as with the health projects, the farmers' cooperatives, the recreational program, and the community youth council, they work with adults in activities for community service and improvement. Such work is considered a part of a student's school program. Indeed, it constitutes an apprenticeship in local citizenship, and at the same time provides information and experience which students share with one another in their class discussions.

Students working for community improvement soon come into contact with agencies of government. They find the federal and state governments represented in their county agricultural agent, their home demonstration agent, their county agricultural committee, and in agencies for rural electrification, soil conservation, flood control, and the improvement of roads and transportation—all working to improve the economic conditions of the district. They meet the state government again through the public health service, the state park service, the state department of labor, and through the many services rendered by the state department of education, the state college of agriculture, and the state university. Their local public agencies, they find, are the means whereby the community provides schools, a library, recreation facilities, police and fire protection, and many other services. In a word, they learn to think of government as an instrument, which people use to do things collectively for the common good.

These firsthand contacts with the community are not casual. They are planned parts of the systematic study of the Farmville area and its institutions. This study commences with the occupational survey in the tenth grade and is later expanded to include other aspects of community life, such as health, recreation, government, natural resources, education, and cultural opportunities. Community studies are planned and conducted by the entire teaching staff, for every field in the school curriculum is represented in the community. Social studies teachers are responsible for the general direction of community studies, but teachers of science, agriculture, home economics, literature, arts, health, physical education, and business education all make their contributions at appropriate times. This study has its practical outcome, for one of its purposes is to keep up to date the central file of information about the community, which is used by the school, the community council, and practically all the local agencies.

Moving Out to the Larger Scene

Citizenship education moves out to the state, national, and world situations by way of the experiences which pupils have had in school and community. As they move outward, pupils should be led to see and understand the connections.

There is scarcely any matter of local concern in Farmville which does not lead quickly to considerations which are state, regional, national, or even worldwide in scope. This is particularly the case when, as in Farmville, the school is concerned with the improvement of its community.

The teachers and students of the Farmville Secondary School are, therefore, studying international settlements, policies and programs of the federal and state governments, and regional projects for the development of electric power and irrigation, not only because it is their duty as citizens to be familiar with these matters, but because their own welfare is daily conditioned by the acts of government officials, legislators, and corporation executives in remote places.

Take markets and prices for farm products, for example. Both are determined largely by national and international action. Policies with respect to foreign trade, the shipment of foods to devastated countries, control of production of farm crops, parity prices for farm products, government purchase of surplus commodities, freight rates, and the like, combine to exert a far greater influence on Farmville's income from its products than the factors subject to local control by Farmville people. It is an easy step, therefore, for classes to move from the study of agriculture in their own community to the study of the larger scene as it affects their community.

Take electricity. Students at Farmville are made alert to the possibility of improving rural life by the use of electrical appliances.

They become familiar with the operation of electrically operated automatic water pressure systems, milkers, milk coolers, feed grinders, poultry brooders, food dehydrators, and cold storage lockers, all of which would lessen farm labor and increase production. They likewise learn through practice how home labor can be lightened and home services increased by the use of electric lighting, electric ranges, refrigeration, laundry equipment, vacuum cleaners, and other household appliances. But that is only half the story. They learn also that general application of electricity to rural life depends upon two factors, both beyond their direct control: the availability of cheap power and of low-cost credit for the purchase of equipment. So their interest in rural electrification leads them naturally to the study of the policies of government and of regional utility and credit corporations, and to an examination of ways in which they, as citizens, can act to influence these policies.

One might go on to illustrate with health services, schools, roads, or irrigation. As Farmville youth study their community, they find that these and other necessary services cannot be provided by their unaided efforts. Larger units of government must assist in planning, construction, and finance.

One therefore finds no sharp divisions of the social studies into courses on the community and courses on national and world affairs. Under skilful teaching, practically every local interest is made to yield its harvest of useful knowledge and intelligent attitudes about the larger scene.

Developing Competence in the Study of Public Problems

Citizenship requires judgment on problems. Students should master methods of studying and judging problems. They should be familiar with some of the important current issues. Thorough study of a few problems rather than superficial treatment of many should be stressed.

As students in the tenth and eleventh grades pursue the activities and studies described in preceding sections, they become aware of many public questions and of the connection of these with the welfare of themselves and their neighbors. It is one thing, however, to recognize these problems. It is another to be able to judge them in the light of relevant facts and with a view to the common good.

Students in the twelfth grade, therefore, spend the greater part of their social studies class time on the study of a few timely and significant public questions. Each class chooses its problems on the basis of its judgment as to timeliness and public importance. Each class follows its own schedule. A problem is usually studied until there is general agreement that it has been well mastered, rather than according to the calendar. The means of investigation are those which would be available to the average citizen in the community—books and pamphlets from the public libraries, radio programs, newspapers, magazines, and participation in discussion groups and forums. Students often attend adult meetings where the question is being discussed. People competent to discuss the problem may be invited to the school to speak and confer with classes. Freedom to discuss controversial matters has been the accepted policy since the board of education adopted it four years ago. Much of the class work is done in small groups, with the teacher acting as consultant and guide. As the study of a problem approaches its concluding stages, the class usually meets as a whole for discussions, while each student prepares a written statement of his own position on the matter at issue, with a justification therefor.

During the current year, one twelfth-grade class has been studying three problems: (a) Should the people of the Farmville area join with the residents of the adjacent Green Valley and Mountain View areas in building a hospital to serve the three communities, as recently proposed by the community council? This has resulted in study of the needs for hospital facilities, of ways of financing capital and operating costs, and of various methods of group hospitalization insurance. (b) If the market for agricultural products should now contract somewhat, should farmers be allowed to produce whatever they wish in whatever quantities they are able, or should there be some system of allotments for certain crops in order to adjust production to demand? If the latter, by whom should control be exercised and what form should it take? This has involved investigation of the relations between markets and prices for agricultural products, on the one hand, and of industrial employment, urban income, and foreign markets, on the other, as well as appraisal of earlier programs and current proposals for production control. (c) Should the United States seek amendments to the United Nations Charter designed to give the UN a greater degree of

TEN MAJOR TASKS FOR UNESCO

The following ten major tasks for Unesco were formulated by the United States delegation to the Fifth Session of the General Conference of Unesco held at Florence, Italy, May 22 to June 17, 1950, and adopted by the Conference as a whole:

1. To eliminate illiteracy and encourage fundamental education.
2. To obtain for each person an education conforming to his aptitudes and to the needs of society, including technological training and higher education.
3. To advance human rights throughout all nations.
4. To remove the obstacles to the free flow of persons, ideas, and knowledge among the countries of the world.
5. To promote the progress and application of science for all mankind.
6. To remove the causes of tensions that may lead to war.
7. To demonstrate world cultural interdependence.
8. To advance through the press, radio, and motion pictures the cause of truth, freedom, and peace.
9. To bring about better understanding among the peoples of the world and convince them of the necessity of cooperating loyally with one another in the framework of the United Nations.
10. To render clearinghouse and exchange services, in all its fields of action, together with services in reconstruction and relief assistance.

Quoted in: U. S. Office of Education, *School Life*, October 1950.

sovereignty? Consideration of this question has required careful study of the Constitution of the United States, the structure and operations of the United Nations, and the current foreign policies of the United States and other great powers. Student committees have investigated the more important alternative proposals for revision of the Charter. Other committees have made intensive study of Unesco, ILO, and other specialized agencies of the UN.

One year of such work gives youth a growing degree of competence in dealing with public questions. It also makes them aware of the number and difficulty of the issues which the average citizen is called upon to meet. Those who remain in Farmville through Grades XIII and XIV are eager to continue this type of study.

Their work in the two later years takes on added interest because of its outlet in the community. Most of the questions studied in school are of interest to adults as well as to youth; but adults, on the whole, have less time than students to devote to the study of these matters. Furthermore, few adults have had opportunity for training or experience in methods of conducting public discussions, as the records of many recent attempts to develop programs of adult civic education will testify. It is a frequent practice at Farmville for a panel of older students from Grades XIII and XIV to go out to an adult forum or to a meeting of a club, a civic group, or a farmers' organization to present the main facts and arguments on some timely question. A student sometimes leads the ensuing discussion as well. Classwork includes training in methods of public presentation and in leadership of forums, panels, and discussion groups. Thus the school is rendering an immediate service to its community and at the same time is equipping the citizens of the next generation to continue their civic education through the years of adult life.

Developing Competence in Political Action

Citizens must learn not only how to make sound judgments, but also how to register their convictions so they will count. Students should, therefore, study methods of political action, at the local, *state, and national levels. They should also evaluate these methods in terms of effectiveness and consistency with democratic principles.*

Go to a meeting of a farmers' organization, a county agricultural committee, the community council, a citizens' forum, or a local political group, and you are likely to find student observers from the Farmville Secondary School, acting as eyes and ears for their classmates, gathering firsthand information about political action in their community. Go to the county seat or the state capital, and you will find that Farmville's young emissaries are known there also. They have watched the county commissioners and the state legislature in action. They have talked with their representatives in both bodies, and with other officials, too. They are not especially concerned with the formal operation of government. They could read about that in books. But they are interested in finding out how their parents and neighbors and other adults act to get things done by political means. On that subject, most of the books have little to say. Students have to search out information for themselves.

Go into classrooms, and you will find students reporting what they have seen and heard, and classes discussing their findings. They have discovered how political parties operate, how candidates are nominated, how platforms are written. They have learned that the ballot is not always the most effective instrument of political action, because issues may be obscured at elections, or important questions may arise between elections. They have become familiar with "pressure groups" of various kinds, and with the ways in which they exert their influence in the county seat, the state capital, and in Washington. Their experiences do not necessarily lead students to condemnation of these methods of political action. For example, one frequently hears students defending pressure groups as necessary and useful. The trouble with existing pressure groups, they say, is that they represent too few people and too narrow interests. What is needed, they assert, is bigger and better pressure groups, representing large cross sections of the public and working to promote the general welfare.

As a result of such experiences, some of the older students have already become active members of community civic groups. Without waiting until they have reached the voting age, they have taken their places as young adults in the farmers' organizations, community forums, political parties, and other groups.

Similar things are happening in many other rural communities, thanks to the annual rural youth leadership conference at the state agricultural college. This conference, now in its fourth year, has helped hundreds of rural youth to share experiences, work on common problems, and broaden their outlook and understanding. Farmville's delegates have gained many ideas and much encouragement, and have also contributed their share.

Building Knowledge as a Tool of Civic Competence

Students need knowledge and understanding of contemporary society and of historical background to enable them to deal with new issues as they arise and think clearly regarding social goals for the future. Understanding of trends, movements, and relationships should be developed. Stress should be placed on the understanding and appreciation of democracy, of American ideals, and of the achievements of the American people in realizing their ideals.

The teachers at Farmville, like many teachers elsewhere, came to the end of World War II with some perplexing questions about the teaching of history and other social studies. The thirties had been a decade of problems—economic, political, social; local, national, international. Efforts at solution had given rise to still other problems. Education, reflecting the spirit of the times, had stressed the problem approach to the study of society. This approach had values which few would deny; but when used exclusively, it also had shortcomings. It made the student familiar with a series of specific problems. Too often, however, it failed to give him understanding of their interrelations, of their causes, and of the historical movements out of which they had emerged. Too often it failed to equip him with the information and insights needed to deal with the new crop of problems which the next year might bring forth.

The war years added to the teachers' perplexities. Appeals and pressures came from federal agencies and national organizations for new "emphases" to meet wartime needs. As patriotic teachers did their best to respond to each new appeal, the social studies courses increasingly became composites of unrelated "problems" and "units."

Not long after the end of World War II, it became evident that the expected reduction of international tensions would by no means be realized. Ideological conflict between freedom-loving nations and those under communist control mounted rapidly. The outbreak of further warfare on a worldwide scale became an increasing danger. Peoples everywhere looked to the United States for leadership. The Farmville staff set about rebuilding their courses on the study of society. Some of the outcomes we have already examined —the firsthand study of the local community, the expansion of outlook to the national and world scene, and the mastery of methods of dealing with public questions. In the light of postwar uncertainty, these were not enough.[2]

"We are responsible," these teachers said in one of their reports on the subject, "for helping all youth to develop four understandings:

"First, *of our own nation*—its people, its government, its material resources, its growth and achievements, and, most important of all, the ideals of liberty and justice which motivated its founders and have inspired its citizens in all generations;

"Second, of the *relations of our nation to the rest of the world*—and that includes, of course, understanding the main features of the rest of the world;

"Third, of the *main trends in the historical development* of the present national and world situation;

"Fourth, of the *possibilities of progress* toward fuller realization of democratic ideals and the conditions of just and durable peace. These should be part of the minimum equipment of every citizen.

"In order to develop these understandings, there must be systematic study of contemporary society and of history. We make that statement with our eyes open to the dangers of its abuse. We know how easy it is to allow systematic study for definite purposes to degenerate into a routine process of acquiring information for its own sake. But one should not reject something useful merely because it may be abused. We believe that the dangers can be avoided, if we can answer two questions: First, out of the vast reservoir of material which might be taught about the world of the past and present, what will serve best to develop these four understandings? Second, how can we enlist the active participation of students from the beginning, and sustain their interest through a necessarily long period of study?"

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[2] For a discussion of educational responsibility during times of world uncertainty, see: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *American Education and International Tensions*, Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1949.

Ever since the new Farmville Secondary School was opened, the teachers have been searching for the answers to their questions. They have planned, acted, studied results, revised plans, acted again; and they have found answers. Not final answers; not formulas. But they have found materials and methods that are already yielding encouraging success and that promise well for the future. Here are some of their more significant experiences, as they have reported them.

"Boys and girls are interested in action and adventure. We have tried to apply that simple fact in our teaching. We have sought to teach history as a fascinating story, packed with more action and adventure than one can find in works of fiction.

"A story needs a central theme, a plot. We had to hunt for that among the facts of history, for we could not shape the past to suit our own desires. We hunted, and we found the theme. Like a hidden figure in a picture puzzle, it had been obscured by detail. But, once discovered, it stood out so clearly that thenceforth one could not help seeing it.

"This theme of history, as we try to teach it, is *man's age-old struggle to achieve freedom and security*. From the dawn of history, men have sought freedom to rule themselves, freedom to think and express their thoughts, freedom to worship, freedom to work. From the earliest times, men have sought security for themselves, their families, and their nations against destructive forces of nature and the hostile actions of their fellow men.

"This struggle has been waged unceasingly through the centuries against the vaunting ambitions of tyrants, the might of empires, the selfishness of vested interests, doctrines of racial and class superiority, against disease and drought, flood and famine, the inertia of tradition, and the blindness of ignorance. In every age and every land, men have worked to build a civilization yielding increasing freedom and security to more and more of the people. Now, in our own time, men are venturing into territory largely unexplored, and are seeking to achieve freedom and security on a worldwide scale. The centuries are marked by monuments of progress, but always these monuments have been built by the devoted efforts of men and women. There is no easy road to progress. Eternal vigilance is still the price of liberty. Whenever people become complacent and relax their vigilance, they jeopardize the achievements of centuries.

"In this story of human striving, the United States has been destined to have a leading part—if it will. We have been blessed with vast natural resources and a genius for production which have yielded us material benefits beyond those of any age or nation. Science has placed powerful instruments in our hands, wherewith we may banish famine and poverty and reduce the ravages of disease. Under stress of war, we have fashioned weapons and forces to protect our land against aggression.

"We are inheritors of freedom-loving people, liberal ideas, and spiritual ideals from all of western civilization. Our national history is marked by the achievements of men and women of high purposes, prophetic vision, and indomitable courage, and by ever-widening diffusion of the blessings of liberty among the people. Of all the nations in all of history, we now have the means and opportunity to achieve the freedom and security for which mankind has struggled through the ages.

"Moreover, today we are in a position of the greatest influence among the nations. We can use our influence to help all nations achieve security against aggression and the threat of future wars. We can use our wealth and power in the interest of economic security and greater freedom for all people everywhere.

"Such are our opportunities. But it is by no means certain that we shall seize them. Within the nation and throughout the world, there are powerful forces opposed to the extension of freedom and security. The age-old struggle still goes on. Once before the United States faced a similar opportunity—and turned away. This time we have not turned away. But we may still do so, not so much through a lack of goodwill as by reason of ignorance, disillusionment, and weariness of spirit.

"If we as a nation set our faces toward the fuller achievement of freedom and security for all people everywhere in the world, then vistas of human progress open up, to which the youth of this generation may well give their enthusiastic devotion. The frontiers have not closed. The days of adventure have not ended. But if we choose once more to turn aside, to look backward, to think of ourselves in isolation from the other peoples of the world, who can foretell the catastrophes which the future may hold? This generation of youth is growing into manhood and womanhood at the most dramatic moment in the whole of human history.

"Around this theme we have planned our program. Only the broad outlines are laid down in advance. The detailed content is supplied by teachers and students together, as the course proceeds.

"At the start, we tie the course to the students' interest in the present and the future. That interest is genuine and strong. You do not have to prod boys and girls into awareness of national and international affairs, when their childhood was lived in wartime, when the boys face years of compulsory military service, and when their entire futures even now are being shaped by momentous acts of our own and other governments.

"The course opens with a survey of the United States and its relations with the rest of the world. First we stress the positive achievements of freedom and security—our civil liberties, our institutions of government, the benefits resulting from the applications of science in industry, agriculture, transportation, and health, for example. Next we seek to locate the frontiers of our time—the points at which men are now striving for greater freedom and security. Among these, of course, are current efforts to safeguard the right to work for all our people, to broaden our social security program, to extend equality of educational opportunity to all our children and youth, and to fashion a world organization of nations. Then we select a few of those frontier areas, to which students are particularly alert, and show how history enlarges our understanding of them and our ability to deal with the problems which they present. In contrast, we show how failure to understand history has led the American people into costly errors in the past. By every means, we try to show that history is to be studied because of the light which it throws on the present and the future.

"Then, out of the past, teachers and students select those creative movements and personalities which mark man's advances in attaining freedom and security. Causes of progress are sought for, and also the chief obstacles which have hindered advancement. Continuities and interrelations are stressed, rather than isolated events. On a worldwide stage, this drama of history moves forward, reaching its climax as the course returns to the present and faces the world of the future.

"One scene in this drama of history invariably stands out above all others. That is the period in which the thirteen colonies were transformed into the United States of America. Nothing out of the past is so important, we think, as the understanding of the aims and ideals, the struggles and conflicts, the devotion and perseverance, and the far-sighted wisdom of the men who founded this nation. No heritage from the past is so inspiring to the youth of today as the three great documents of that period—the Declaration of Independence, the Constitution, and the Bill of Rights—when these are viewed as the products of men who wrestled with the problems which free men of every generation must face and who wrought their enduring answers into these charters of American democracy.

"The proposal for this course originated with the social studies teachers. But planning was scarcely begun before teachers from other fields were brought in, and soon the course became a project of the entire school staff. Incidentally, we teachers are learning as much from the course as our students.

"*The teachers of agriculture, for example, are helping students to see how advances in agriculture and in conditions of rural life have been among man's chief steps toward economic security.* At first they intended to limit the study to the United States. But food now looms so large on the world scene that they were soon including the main features of agriculture in other nations, particularly Russia, central Europe, India, China, Argentina, and Brazil. They are also working on a study of movements for extension of freedom in this country which had their origins or chief support among farm people.

"*The teachers of science are indispensable. The contributions of science to security and freedom are of incalculable importance.* Science applied in industry, agriculture, and transportation has helped man far along the road to a world economy of abundance. Science applied in medicine, surgery, and sanitation has reduced illness and lengthened lives. Science applied in the press, the radio, and television has greatly increased man's ability to disseminate information and ideas. Science applied to the study of man has shattered myths of racial, class, and sex superiorities, demonstrated that the vast majority of people are capable of lifelong learning, strengthened our faith in the ability of the common people to rule themselves, and broadened our views of the freedoms and opportunities which are the rights of all people.

"*No one plays a more important part in the course than the teachers of literature. Whatever the subject, whatever the period of history, novels, dramas, biographies, and poetry have incomparable value as means of gaining insight into the ideals, the aspirations, and struggles of men and women.* They supply the elements of action and adventure, so appealing to youth, and so often lacking in the factual treatises. The historical novel and drama, and their later counterparts, the historical motion picture and radio-television broadcast, are frequently used to recreate an earlier period, to interpret the culture of another people, or to embody historic words and deeds in men and women of flesh and blood. Art and music are often joined with literature as expressions of the ideals of a people or an age.

"One reason why students are so interested in this course, we think, is that they have a large part in developing its contents. The course itself is an adventure for all of us. There is no detailed syllabus, no single source book. Information must be gathered from many books, pamphlets, periodicals, newspapers, radio programs, and people. Teachers guide the search and do their share of the searching. But much of the work of discovery is done by students, and their contributions are of value to teachers as well as to themselves.

"As we review what we have learned from our brief experience with this course, certain things stand out:

"We are learning to think in terms of world history. In order to understand our present relations with other nations, we find it necessary to know the main currents of history not only in North America and western Europe, but also in Russia, the Far East, India, and Latin America.

"We are learning to think of a world of nations increasingly interdependent. We can trace the decline of isolation from the days of ancient Rome, China, and India—each a world empire unto itself—down to the removal of the last vestiges of isolation by the airplane.

"We are learning to look for causes and consequences of events —particularly of wars and revolutions and great social changes.

"We are learning to select, out of all that might be studied, those events and movements and personalities most relevant to our central theme, most helpful in developing the four understandings which are our aims.

"We teachers, at least, are learning these things. That we know. And we think it likely that our students are learning them with us. For nothing is more conducive to learning by the young than to work with teachers who are also learners.

"This course ends where it began—with study of the contemporary world, centered in our own nation. This ending also marks the beginning of the work for the next year. In the course of our study, we have identified many problems of our own time, but we have not tried to solve them. As we return to the present and look toward the future, we conclude by selecting those problems now before the American people which, in our judgment, are most important and most urgent. This last step is also the first step for the course in public problems in the twelfth grade."

Fostering Loyalty to the Principles and Ideals of American Democracy

Youth should be encouraged to set up goals for achievement by their generation which will surpass those of their fathers, and which will bring the community, the nation, and the world nearer to the attainment of democratic ideals.

Older people are always concerned about the loyalties of youth, and their concern is naturally heightened whenever the nation is passing through a period of crisis or rapid change. Only the most carping critic could find fault with the performance of American youth while war was being waged. It was chiefly the nation's youth who fought the battles and who gave their lives, or risked them, to win the victory. Of those youth who did not serve in the armed forces, millions labored in factories and on farms to produce weapons and food. Those who continued in schools prepared themselves for active service when the call should come, and meanwhile sought and found many opportunities to be useful through their schools and in their communities.

But when World War II was ended, and a period of grave international uncertainty almost immediately followed, the question of youth's loyalty again came to the fore. Some, as always, were alarmed by youth's questioning of the past and their interest in proposals for political and economic change. Others view youth's perennial dissatisfaction with the status quo as a healthy condition, but one that needed the most careful adult thought and guidance. As a proportionately minute, but dramatically publicized, number of sometimes influential American adults were found to have succumbed to communist ideology and to have furthered it in their actions, the fear that youth would be similarly affected became greater. The schools were properly thought of as a bulwark against the danger of disloyalty among the nation's energetic young people.

There was a concomitant concern that this bulwark itself be impregnable. The personal loyalty of teachers and other educational leaders was a matter of the first importance to the nation. Fortunately, all evidence showed the schools to be leaders in the campaign to foster democratic ideals among youth.

Farmville people were like people everywhere. They talked about these things in their various meetings and in their daily conversations. As they talked, their concern grew. Something should be done, they said—but what? Some favored more rigorous discipline, more stress on ritual and ceremony, more efforts to inculcate loyalty by direct instruction. Others felt that loyalty must be fostered rather than forced, but were frequently uncertain as to the best methods.

The superintendent of schools saw that this was a matter on which the whole community should be consulted. Whatever program might be adopted by the schools would have to be understood and supported by a considerable part of the public. So, with board approval, he arranged the appointment of a committee representing the community council, the parent-teacher association, the school staff, and the student body, to study this matter, to discuss it with other groups in the community, and to make such reports and recommendations as it might see fit. After some months of work, the committee drafted a statement, which has served as a guide to the school and a basis for understanding between school and community. We quote several sections which carry the main points of the report.

LOYALTY

Loyalty is like love and the kingdom of heaven. It lives in people's hearts. You cannot make a person loyal by telling him that he must be loyal. You cannot make him loyal by requiring him to repeat pledges or take part in ceremonies. The person with loyalty in his heart delights in expressing his devotion; but unless he first be loyal, ritual and pledges are of little worth.

Loyalty is not built, part by part. It grows. We who spend our lives in helping things grow should not find it difficult to understand that. We can plant the seeds of loyalty in the hearts of boys and girls. We can identify the conditions under which loyalty grows most vigorously. In our homes, our school, and our community, we can do our best to supply the conditions favorable to healthy growth.

As to the conditions of growth, there are four which seem to us important:

Loyalty grows when it has its *roots in experience.* Boys and girls must have experiences of democratic living, in their homes, their schools, and their community, and must find them good, if they are to be deeply loyal to democratic ideals. Otherwise, they can give only lip service to empty words. We therefore look with favor upon the efforts of the school staff to make the school a place where boys and girls can experience democracy and learn its ways through practice.

Loyalty grows when one *has clear ideas* about that to which one is loyal. Experiences as well as words may have little meaning. Boys and girls have to be helped to examine their experiences, to discover the distinguishing marks of those that are democratic, and to decide why those are to be preferred to others. Then they will have a stock of ideas which they can use in dealing with the world beyond the range of their immediate experience, and their loyalty can grow accordingly.

Loyalty grows when one *appreciates the cost* of the object of one's loyalty. It is easy to take our nation, our freedoms, our democratic institutions for granted. Each one of us needs to relive, in imagination, the struggles and sacrifices by which these things were achieved. Here lies one of the great values of the study of history.

Loyalty grows when one has a chance to *work for the cause* to which he is loyal. We older people often forget this. We are so eager to have boys and girls appreciate their democratic heritage that we offer it to them as a finished product, rather than an ideal, still in the making. We would do better to help them see the American patriots' dream of a nation with liberty and justice and opportunity for all, and to encourage them to have a real part in bringing that dream nearer to fulfilment.

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How much time, you are doubtless asking, does this seven-point program take? Doesn't it require more time than a school can give, and do all the other things it has to do? Farmville's teachers faced that question. There were many "other things" that they wanted to do. Time was limited. If they had followed precedent, they would have decided that one class period a day was sufficient, and that the rest could be done through the extracurriculum program and incidentally along with other activities. But they did not follow precedent. Instead, they talked about the relative importance of the purposes of education. They agreed that there is no purpose more important than the preparation of boys and girls for the full responsibilities of citizenship. They agreed that there is no purpose more difficult to accomplish, especially in a time when the whole world is in a process of remaking. And they agreed that youth will no more learn to be good citizens through "incidental" experiences than they will incidentally learn to be good doctors, teachers, mechanics, or farmers. Time for citizenship education must be provided, they said, commensurate with its importance. And they have found the time, as we shall see later, without slighting the other major purposes of education.[3]

PERSONAL DEVELOPMENT OF YOUTH

If Thomas Jefferson were alive today and were to visit Farmville, the statesman—who was also educator and farmer—would find a bond of spiritual kinship with these farm and village people. For the purposes which guide the Farmville Secondary School are strikingly similar to Jefferson's immortal triad of inalienable rights—life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. To preserve their right to life, youth are prepared to earn their livings at useful occupations and are launched upon self-supporting careers. To safeguard their right to liberty, youth are equipped to assume the responsibilities of citizens of a democratic commonwealth. To assure to all the right to the pursuit of happiness, youth are helped to achieve well-rounded personal development.

In the minds of the people of Farmville—the teachers, parents, and others interested in youth—this purpose of personal development ranks equally with vocational efficiency and civic competence.[4]

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[3] See chart on page 151.

[4] The three purposes of education in this statement—namely, occupational preparation, civic competence, and personal development—correspond, with the exceptions to be noted, to the four "purposes of education in American democracy" set forth in the Educational Policies Commission's statement on that subject (Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938). These four purposes are self-realization, human relationship, economic efficiency, and civic responsibility. In the Farmville Secondary School, the two purposes of self-realization and human relationship are combined under the heading of personal development. The consumer aspects of economic efficiency appear under personal development (especially in connection with education for family living) and under civic competence, as well as under occupational preparation. Otherwise there is general agreement between the two statements.

Rural schools, they know, too often have neglected this side of education. Health services have frequently been inadequate. Thousands of country schools have had none whatever. The same is true of libraries, of recreational facilities, and of opportunities for social life. The curriculums, in many cases, have been restricted to a few academic courses and a few courses in agriculture and home economics. Teachers have been poorly paid, as a rule, and often inadequately trained for anything beyond conventional teaching of conventional subjects.

Educational poverty in rural schools has not been deliberate, of course. It has been caused chiefly by financial poverty and faulty school-district organization. On the whole, the taxable wealth per child of school age in rural communities has been far below that of cities; and, until recently, only a few of the states have supplied state financial aid to schools in such a manner as greatly to reduce the disparity between school districts. Furthermore, in most cases, rural high-school districts have been too small to support schools with programs broad enough to serve the needs of youth.

Knowing these things, and knowing that as a consequence, countless thousands of rural boys and girls have been unfairly handicapped in their pursuit of happiness, the people of Farmville have resolved that the children and youth of their community shall have opportunities for personal development comparable to those found in the best city schools.

Personal development, however, is a broad purpose which needs to be translated into specific aims in order to serve as a guide to educational practice.

To the teachers of Farmville, personal development means *growth* in six aspects of living:

1. Health of body and mind
2. Family life
3. Recreational and leisure-time interests and activities
4. Understanding and appreciation of the cultural heritage
5. Intellectual achievement
6. Character, conceived as conduct in relation to other persons, motivated by ethical ideals and principles.

These—and with them, occupational proficiency and civic competence—are areas of growth, not titles of courses. They are educational purposes, not compartments. We must not expect to find courses corresponding precisely to each area, nor must we suppose that we shall be able neatly to classify all the activities of the school under one or another of these headings. Learning is the result of interaction between the whole of a boy or girl and the whole of a situation; and both learners and situations are usually too complex to permit easy classification.

The Farmville Secondary School does have a program, of course—a plan of organization of learning experiences. Later we shall examine this program and consider such practical questions as scheduling and sequences.[5] But we shall be following the example of the Farmville teachers if we think first of *boys and girls in the process of growing* and recognize that curriculums, courses, and schedules are instruments for fostering growth.

Health of Body and Mind

The time, three years ago, when Jennie Harkness entered the tenth grade.

The speaker, Mrs. Wallace, Jennie's counselor:

"Jennie, the board of education has decided to provide free health examinations for all students in the school, and we should like you to be examined as soon as possible. The ounce of prevention, you know. Either Dr. Bradford or Dr. White will examine you, whichever you and your parents prefer. Oh, Dr. Bradford is your family physician? Good. Then will you report to Miss Lambert, the school nurse, on Wednesday at ten o'clock in the health room? We will want to have a look at your teeth and eyes, too. Dr. Rogers is examining teeth and we have an eye specialist coming out from the city. Here is a page of information for you and your parents to read together. Will you ask your father or your mother to fill out this form and will you bring it back to me before Wednesday? Thank you, Jennie."

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[5] See pages 147-50.

Health examinations were new three years ago. But if Jennie were to go through the schools of the Farmville district today, her health examination in Grade X would be her fourth, instead of her first.

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Four weeks later. Scene, the conference held every Friday afternoon during the period of health examinations.

"Howard Daniels certainly needs glasses," said Dr. Bradford, as he looked up from a handful of records.

"He should have them soon, too, Doctor," commented Mr. Gilbert, Howard's counselor. "He reads more than most boys. I've noticed that he always has a book at hand when he is working in his mother's store. I talked to Howard and his mother yesterday. Mrs. Daniels has to count ever penny, but she would do anything for her boy. I think we can get him fixed up when his class goes to American City next month. That will save them the cost of a trip to the city."

"Good," replied the doctor. "It's too bad that Farmville can't support an oculist. We pay for it in headaches. Well, here's Marie Stewart. Teeth in bad shape. But I see that she has already made an appointment with Dr. Rogers. That's one good thing about these examinations. They get people to do things that they have put off much too long. You'd think, wouldn't you, with her father being as well off as he is—well, never mind that! Now about this Flynn boy. He's underweight, and his posture isn't good, and he seems to lack the energy a boy of sixteen should have. All tied up together, no doubt. H'm. The record says that the Flynn children all have to work pretty hard at home, and that it's doubtful that they get the right food for growing youngsters. Know anything more about the family?"

"Yes, I do," put in Miss Lambert. "I am sure the boy is poorly nourished. All the Flynn children have the same difficulties. Miss Scott has been making some progress with Mrs. Flynn. I went with her on the last visit. Mrs. Flynn seems willing enough, but she doesn't know the simplest facts about nutrition. And Mr. Flynn, we were given to understand, will have nothing to do with this new-fangled diet stuff. Miss Scott has Charles' older sister in home economics. She is giving Katherine special instruction in inexpensive diets, and she hopes to persuade Mrs. Flynn to let the girl have a part in feeding the family."

"That sounds promising," said the doctor. "What about his physical education, Mr. Haines?"

"I've been giving him special attention," replied the teacher. "He gets plenty of exercise at home, but not the right kind. Fortunately, he's eager to learn to swim. He needs a chance to play games, too. There's not much play at home, I'm afraid."

"Good. Nothing too strenuous at first, of course. We'll have to build him up. You'll look after extra milk for him, Miss Lambert; and he may need a daily rest period for a while."

"Jennie Harkness," Dr. Bradford continued. "I've known her since she was a baby. Heart murmur. Effect of rheumatic fever six years ago. Nothing serious now, but will need watching. Avoid overexertion and fatigue. I see that Miss Burton has already taken care of her program in physical education. Mrs. Wallace, you will see that the rest of Jennie's teachers are informed, won't you?"

"Yes, and I will have a talk with Jennie, too, about her school work. We want to be sure that she finds things to do that are within her strength, and that she doesn't think of herself as different from other girls."

"Very good. Now, here's the last one for this week," resumed the physician. "Ernest Mathews. Sound as they come."

"And fairly bursting with energy," added Ernest's counselor. "All that boy needs is someone to help him direct that power drive of his."

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Examinations, health guidance, and follow-up are indispensable, but they are only part of the school's health program. It is more important, says the staff, to prevent poor health than to correct it. It is better to develop healthful living conditions than to cure the casualties of an unhealthy environment. It is better to develop good habits of personal hygiene than to cure the results of neglect. Youth should therefore learn how to make their schools, their homes and their community conducive to good health; and they should also, at the same time, learn how to look after themselves.

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The occupational survey in Farmville and the visits to American City had more values than one to Ernest and Jennie and their tenth-grade classmates. They learned how to go after information for a particular purpose and what to do with information after they had gathered it. They gained confidence in their ability to meet adults and talk with them about adult affairs. They had the satisfaction of seeing the results of their work put immediately to practical use.

At the time when this class completed its study of "The World at Work," the community council was considering ways of improving health in the Farmville area. Miss Randolph, the teacher, told the class of some of the problems which the council was facing, and suggested that the students might be interested in helping to gather some of the needed information.

"Why can't we study health in the same way we studied occupations?" asked Ernest Mathews. "We could make a survey of sickness and accidents, same as we did with jobs."

"What good would it do you to find out how many people are sick?" another pupil objected. "We can't go running out to ask people questions every time we take up something new in class."

"Besides," added Marie Stewart, "people don't like to have you question them about their illnesses. They don't mind discussing their jobs, but health is a private affair."

"It isn't private if I catch malaria from you," someone retorted.

"You don't catch malaria. You get it from a mosquito."

"As if I didn't know that! I mean, your health isn't private if you have malaria, and a mosquito bites you and then bites me and gives me some of your malaria germs."

"This is getting rather complicated, isn't it?" said Miss Randolph with a smile. "Perhaps the person really responsible is someone who allows a breeding place for mosquitoes to stand on his property. Well, do you think that we might be able to gather some useful information about health and disease without offending people?"

"I think we could," said Enid White, daughter of the physician. "I have heard my father say that many people are sick from malaria and typhoid and other diseases that can be prevented, and that if the people understood more about the causes of these diseases, there wouldn't be so much illness."

This is a small sample of one of many discussions which were the beginnings of investigations of local health conditions, with practical outcomes far beyond any imagined when they were first thought of, and with commensurate learning value. Mr. Grayson, a science teacher, and Miss Lambert, the school nurse, came in to help. It was fortunate that three teachers were working on the project, for it required much careful guidance and skilful handling of public relations. The enthusiasm of youth is sometimes blind to adult sensitivities, and Marie was right—many people do regard their health, or lack of it, as a private matter. But Dr. Bradford and Dr. White gave their support, parents were informed through the PTA, and the project went forward.

The important thing is that Howard, Marie, Jennie, Ernest, Charles, and Enid were soon busily engaged in finding out the frequency and location of typhoid, malaria, tuberculosis, diphtheria, scarlet fever, and other communicable diseases; studying about the causes, transmission, and prevention of these diseases; locating some of the actual causes in the Farmville district; taking preventive measures in their own homes; and planning public campaigns for prevention.

When the investigation was completed, the class met with the community council, to present its findings and recommendations. The report contained facts about the rates of communicable diseases in the Farmville district; about screening of windows and doors, sanitary toilets, sewage disposal, and water supplies in a sampling of homes; about breeding places of mosquitoes, flies, and rats; and about the extent of immunization among a sampling of the people. It also proposed a series of actions to remove the causes.

That is all we have time to tell about, in the way of community health activities, for there are other health activities within the school, which must also be mentioned.

Let us look at the personal history records of our six students. All six of them, we find, have been learning about personal health and hygiene, both physical and mental, from tenth grade onward. To be sure, there has not been a continuous course on health through the three years. Instead, units and projects on health have been introduced when they seemed to be most needed, and when they were appropriate to the maturity and experience of students. More often than not, the study of health was closely related to work in some other field—family living, consumer education, science, or community problems.

In tenth grade, as we have seen, these students learned a great deal about personal health from their investigation of health conditions in the community. In addition, they all studied nutrition, foods, and home sanitation in their work on family life. Their course in science also yielded useful health knowledge. By planning their work together, and sometimes pooling their time and teaching, the teachers were able to avoid duplications and make these experiences re-enforce one another.

In eleventh grade, the school nurse and the teachers of science, home economics, and physical education pooled their time and resources for a period of intensive work on health and hygiene. A counselor with training in psychology and mental hygiene joined them. Some of the work consisted of quick "refreshers" of things learned earlier—first aid and safety, taught in ninth grade, and nutrition, home sanitation, and communicable diseases, from tenth grade. Most of the content was new, however, organized around the personal health needs and problems of boys and girls, with materials drawn from physiology, hygiene, dietetics, chemistry, biology, and psychology.

Particular stress was laid upon the study of mental health. A good working library [6] was collected of books by reliable psychologists and mental hygienists—books written for young people rather than for their teachers and parents, which deal with the everyday lives of boys and girls and stress the normal aspects of mental health rather than maladjustments. Against a background of reading in such books, students were able to discuss many of their personal problems objectively and profitably. They were informed that problems which they did not wish to discuss in class might be talked over with their counselors or the teachers, and many took advantage of this invitation.

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[6] The "Personal Efficiency" bookshelf in the library, which is available to all students, includes such titles as: "Growing Into Life," "What It Means to Grow Up," "Understanding Yourself," "Popularity," and "Building Your Life."

In twelfth grade, the work in health dealt with the needs of later adolescence and the early years of adult life. Here came the unit on "Friendship, Courtship, and Marriage," which we shall describe more fully in a few moments. Here also the girls received training in care of small children and home nursing.

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Headlines from the *Farmville School News* selected during the past six weeks:

Farmville Footballers Defeat Clear Falls in Close Contest
Girls' Field Hockey Schedule Announced
Flynn Wins Interclass Diving Match
New Archery Equipment Arrives
Weekend Camping Trips Planned
Class Gives Program of Early American Folk Dances

What is important here is not the headlines (you could match them from many other school papers), but what these headlines mean in terms of our six Farmville youth: Ernest Mathews, Enid White, Charles Flynn, Jennie Harkness, Howard Daniels, and Marie Stewart. For each headline stands for one of our six, and together the six headlines mean, "Opportunity for regular, healthful, vigorous exercise for all, and to each according to his needs."

Ernest Mathews, we may be sure, was in the thick of that "close contest." And Enid White, who is no less energetic than Ernest, is captain of one of the field hockey teams in the intramural league. But how comes Charles Flynn to be winning a diving contest? Isn't he the boy who was underweight and listless and who had such poor posture? Yes, he is—or was three years ago. Then Mr. Haines found that Charles had always wanted to swim but had never had a chance to learn. A few weeks of coaching in swimming and diving by one of Mr. Haines' student assistants brought Charles through the beginner's stages. He was soon enjoying his new skills and at the same time was strengthening the muscles which had been weak. Mr. Haines kept his eye on Charles, and gave him a few minutes of special instruction from time to time. So the boy gained strength and confidence, until he became as good as the average in muscular development and coordination. Having grown that much, Charles was not satisfied. He had never excelled at anything before, but here was opportunity. He continued to practice, hard and faithfully, and now we read "Flynn Wins Interclass Diving Match."

Jennie Harkness can't play field hockey. Remember that she has to watch her heart. But she can now shoot an arrow into the bull's-eye as often as any other girl in school. Howard Daniels loves the out-of-doors, but he has to spend most of his spare time on week days in his mother's store. He is planning to go to college and law school, and most of his studies keep him indoors. He gets some exercise in the gym and on the playground, but not enough for a growing boy. This spring Howard has been on three weekend camping trips and several nature hikes. Three years ago Marie Stewart was overweight, soft, and lacking in self-confidence. But she had good rhythmic sense and muscular coordination, and in Miss Burton she found an understanding teacher. Now Marie is that slim and graceful girl who has one of the leading parts in the folk dancing.

There is more to physical education, of course, than these brief sketches tell. But perhaps enough has been reported to show that the Farmville Secondary School believes that training in physical skills and the enjoyment of physical activities are essential parts of education, which foster health both of body and of mind.

Family Life

A recent visitor to Farmville was talking with a group of upper-class students. "What school experiences have you found most helpful to you personally?" he asked.

Up went the hand of one of the older boys. Looking at the boy's muscular frame and hardened hands, the visitor expected a reply of "physical education" or "machine shop" or "agriculture." He was quite surprised, therefore, when the boy responded, "I found the work on family life very helpful."

"How was that?" asked the visitor.

"Well, we're all members of families now, and most of us will have families of our own in a few years. It seems to me that people's happiness depends to a large extent on the kind of homes they have and how they get along with other members of their families. Our study of family life helped me to understand what families are for and how important it is for everyone who belongs to a family to do his part to make the family a success. It helped me to a better understanding of my parents and their problems, and I think I will be a better member of my own family when the time comes for that."

"We've just finished a discussion of friendship, courtship, and marriage," put in another boy. "That helped many of us with our personal questions."

"It was a good idea to have several teachers working with us, when we talked about personal relations," added a girl. "We were told that we could go to any of them and talk over our problems, if we wanted to. You could choose the teacher you thought would best understand your particular problem."

"We learned a lot of other things about family living," said another girl, "about cooking, and nutrition, and clothing, and care of children, and how to make our homes beautiful as well as convenient. Have you seen the model home that the boys built three years ago? The students chose all the furnishings, and the girls redecorate it every year. Every girl gets practical training in the model home."

"We can practice in our own homes, too," said a third girl eagerly. "We have home projects, and you should see the changes in some of our homes since we have been studying home management and home furnishing."

"You mustn't think we rush home and barge into our parents' business," said another girl. "We discuss every home project with our parents, and they and we decide on the plans before anyone starts to work. For years my parents have wanted our living-room to be more livable, and they said our whole crowd could work on it if we wanted to. Five of us girls did, and three of the boys worked with us part of the time. The boys got so interested that they helped us make over the garden and did some repairs that Dad hadn't time for. Of course Mother and Dad went over all the plans with us and with our teacher. I wish you could see our house now. The living-room is really a room to live in, and we all use it far more than we ever did before."

"Girls aren't the only ones who learn practical things," another boy remarked. "Boys are members of families, too. We learned about buying clothes and furniture, and planning family budgets. In the shops they taught us how to do electric wiring, and how to repair electrical equipment and furniture and other things around the home. We could learn to make furniture, too, if we were interested. I took the unit on camp cooking. I work at the state park every summer, and it certainly is handy to know how to cook."

These statements are fairly representative of students' reactions to their experiences of education in family living. A few words may serve to fill some blank spaces in the picture. Study of family life, like that of health, is distributed through all the years of the Farmville Secondary School, with experiences suited to the interests and maturity of students. Boys and girls in Grades VII through X are chiefly concerned with their present experiences as children in families and with the simpler skills of home operation. From the eleventh or twelfth grade onward, both girls and boys think of themselves increasingly as homemakers—as prospective wives, husbands, and parents. Now they are ready to consider the family from a more mature point of view, to seek the knowledge and master the skills which will help them to assume the responsibilities of marriage and parenthood.

All girls have class and laboratory work in foods, clothing, household furnishings, and home management; practical experience on home projects, in the model home, and in the school kitchen; instruction in the care of small children, with practice in the nursery school; and training in home hygiene and home nursing. For boys, there is work in home mechanics, which includes all sorts of skills useful in the maintenance and repair of houses, furniture, and household equipment.

A large part of the work is carried on by girls and boys together—for the most important aspects of family life are the common concern of both sexes. Girls and boys together study the unique services of the family to its members, such as providing affection and security; the influence of the family on the personalities of children; the important role of the family as an agency of religious and moral education; and the possibilities of conducting the family as a democratic association of persons.

Together, too, they study the economic side of family life—the planning of homes and home furnishings; budgeting the family income; how the family can produce for its own consumption; and consumer buying. Indeed, a large part of the school's program in consumer education accompanies the study of family life, and properly so. For the material welfare of most farm and village families is largely dependent on the wise and discriminating expenditure of their relatively small cash incomes—and never more so than in these days of rising prices and multiplied appeals to purchase the latest commerical products of the "new age." [7]

Much that is done elsewhere in the school is related to family life. We have found this true of health education. We shall also find it true of recreational and leisure-time activities. In addition, boys in agriculture study production and preservation of food for home use, ornamental gardening, carpentry, and electric wiring. In the handicraft shops, students have opportunities to learn weaving, dyeing, woodworking, furniture repairing, rug hooking, and other home crafts.

Counselors and teachers of home economics are particularly close to the home lives and family problems of students. From the time a boy or girl enters the school, the counselor has contacts with the parents as well as the student. He consults with the student and his parents together on all major educational decisions, and sometimes also when difficult personal problems arise. Home economics teachers make it a practice to visit the homes of their students and to discuss home projects with parents and students together. Since these teachers are also responsible for adult education, they frequently find that their relations with parents yield opportunities for the school to serve the entire family.

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[7] Consumer education is a matter of the first importance in the curriculum. Other phases of consumer economics are studied in connection with social studies, agriculture, business education, and health education.

The study of family life in the twelfth grade includes one unit which deals quite directly with matters of the most immediate concern to seventeen-year-olds. It is a unit on "Friendship, Courtship, and Marriage," which has proved increasingly popular among both boys and girls. With assistance from Dr. Bradford and Miss Lambert (the school nurse), the unit is taught by Mrs. Wallace, one of the counselors with special training in psychology and health education and with two children of her own.

From twenty to twenty-five girls in each class through twelfth grade do their major work in homemaking. About one-third continue in the Farmville Secondary School through Grade XIV. For these, there are opportunities for advanced study in every phase of family life. In Grades XIII and XIV, the work is largely individual and is well balanced between reading and consultation with teachers, on the one hand, and practical experience, on the other. The school's homemaking activities are so many and so varied that teachers could not possibly supervise them all without aid. Most of the girls in the last two years become assistants to the teachers, helping to supervise and manage the school lunchroom, the nursery school, the foods and clothing laboratories, the model home, the home crafts shops, the home projects, and the projects for food preservation.

Recreational and Leisure-Time Activities

One of the busiest spots in Farmville is the office of Mr. Warfield, recreational supervisor for the Farmville school district. This is the coordinating center for a multitude of activities and events which, in one way or another, engage the interest of most of the people of the district, young and old alike.

Let us look at the schedule for a recent week, chosen at random. The annual community festival is only a few weeks distant; the pageant, dances, and musical numbers are being rehearsed; committees on exhibits, staging, and program are meeting. Spring has brought its insistent call to the out-of-doors. "Twilight League" softball games are scheduled for the five playgrounds in the district. A model airplane and kite-flying contest is to be held on Saturday. Several groups are planning picnics at Forest Park.

This is the week on which the "Community Night" program goes to the Four Corners Elementary School, with a well-chosen motion picture and other entertainment by local talent. The school chorus is to sing at the Methodist Church next Sunday evening, and the speech choir will present a program at the Ruritan Club.

The gymnasium, pool, and recreation room at the Farmville Secondary School are open four nights a week. The gymnasiums in two elementary schools are each open one night a week (two nights during the winter months). All of these must be supervised. It is fortunate for Mr. Warfield that he has the aid of a corps of able young student assistants from the secondary school. He could never look after all these affairs alone.

Five years ago things were different. In those days, people around Farmville had little to occupy their leisure time. There were ball games in the fields and on vacant lots, of course, and boys went swimming in the creek. Boys and girls talked at the drug stores, put nickels in juke boxes, and occasionally borrowed the family car for an evening at the movies or for a dance in American City. Now and then there were school dances, church socials, and parties, and people sometimes danced or played cards in their homes. But most of the recreation was unplanned, and, on the whole, uninteresting, especially for older boys and girls.

What happened to work the transformation? That story can best be told by Mr. Warfield, who came to the old high school in 1945 to teach physical education, English, and the school's one class in music. It was he, more than any other one person, who made the educators and citizens of Farmville aware of their community's recreational resources.

"It was fortunate," Mr. Warfield recalled, "that we had time to plan carefully for our new building. We had a chance to think about the purposes of the new school. Naturally there were conflicting views at first. Some thought vocational education was the one important thing. Well, vocational education is important, but it's not the whole of education. And some of us, I guess, were just as zealous and just as narrow in our pleas for leisure-time activities. But it all came out well in the end. We found that it was not a case of either-or, but rather one of both-and.

"Before we could decide what sort of plant we needed for recreational activities, we had to answer three questions.

"First, we asked, what are the functions of our school in relation to recreational and leisure-time interests? We said there are two. The first function of any school is to teach, or if you prefer, to help people to learn. And we said that people should be helped to learn two things—to cultivate leisure-time interests and to develop skill in following those interests. In those days, before we reorganized our elementary schools, most of our youngsters came to us with only a narrow range of recreational interests, because they had never had a chance to develop any others. It was our job to expose these boys and girls to many possible interests and to help them discover their capacities for enjoyment. Side by side with interests we put skill. Whether you play the clarinet, dance, swim, or play baseball, you enjoy it more if you are reasonably skilful. It was also our job, we said, to teach people to do well the things which they choose to do.

"In Farmville, we went on, the school has a second function. No matter how well you teach, you can't expect people to use their leisure time constructively unless they have facilities. For sports, you need play fields and a gymnasium. For music and drama, you need instruments, rooms, and a stage. For handicrafts, you need shops and equipment. In those days, Farmville had none of these facilities. So we said that this school, which we were planning, ought to be equipped to serve as the recreational center for the community.

"Then we asked our second question. Whom should the school serve? Well, obviously, the boys and girls enrolled as students. But only these? What about those other youth out of school, yet only a year or so older than our students? Their needs for leisure-time activities are often greater than those of boys and girls in school. Yes, we said, we must serve them, too. And what about older people? They too have leisure time. Has the school a responsibility to them? Of course it has. So we agreed that, as far as possible, the school should serve the entire population. When facilities were limited, we added, youth should come first.

"Our third question was geographical. Where should the school's services be located? At first we thought only in terms of the central school building. Then we reflected that many people lived so far from Farmville that they could come to the building only occasionally. Ten or fifteen miles isn't far, to be sure, but multiply it by two for a round trip and then by five cents a mile for gas and oil and tires, and it amounts to more money than many of our people can spend for recreation. As rapidly as possible, we concluded, we must find ways of carrying the recreational services of the school to youth and older people in their neighborhoods and homes.

"The rest," Mr. Warfield continued, "is a long story, and I won't take time to tell it all. We built a plant, as you have seen, with a gymnasium, an auditorium, sound-proofed music rooms, a theater, a recreation room, a swimming pool, and a number of smaller rooms for craft shops, clubs, and committee meetings. The board of education, I should add, was farsighted enough to include space for a community library.

"As for the program, we felt that the young people should have an important voice in planning their own recreational activities. We brought them into the planning from the start—boys and girls who were out of school as well as students. These young people have contributed their share of good ideas. They have made surveys of recreational needs. They have done most of the work in building the playgrounds and improving the park. They have made a large part of our recreational equipment in the school shops. Most important of all, many of them have developed into capable leaders and assistant teachers. We teachers can multiply our usefulness many times by spending a part of our time in training older boys and girls to be recreational leaders.

"There are a few other high points which I might mention. You have seen the playground at the school here in Farmville. Well, we have five of those in the district, and they are in use most of the year. I hope you can visit Forest Park while you are here. Four years ago that was just another woods, which nobody used. The young people worked two years to make that woods into as attractive an outing place as you will find. Thanks to some aid from the federal government and the state and to an interested board of education, we got our community library last year.[8] We also fitted up a truck as a traveling library to distribute books to people at their homes. When the two new elementary schools were built, each one was equipped with a good gymnasium which can also be used for public meetings and entertainments. Two years ago, the board of education decided to employ a full-time recreational supervisor for the district; and they honored me by choosing me for the position.[9]

"Now, if you want to know what the school does for the recreation of its regular students, I think you'd better talk with the principal. He is as deeply interested as I, and better informed."

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Indeed, Mr. Evans was deeply interested, and quite willing to continue Mr. Warfield's narrative.

"Every student," he said, "is encouraged to develop three types of avocational interest: some sport or activity involving exercise and coordination of the large muscles; some ability which can be employed and enjoyed in larger groups, such as choral singing, orchestral playing, dramatics, and folk dancing; and some hobby which can be pursued alone or within the family. Of course, this is a matter of guidance and skilful teaching, rather than assignment. We don't believe that recreational interests can be forced.

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[8] National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Social Services and the Schools*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1939. Chapter IV.

[9] *Ibid.*, Chapter V.

"We try to give the same encouragement and opportunities to out-of-school youth and older people through our late afternoon and evening program.

"We also try to share the best accomplishments of our students with the community, through plays, concerts, exhibits, athletic contests, and the like. We think this is good for the students and good for the community.

"Each student has opportunity to gain proficiency in at least one sport. Many choose more than one, of course. A few carry sports to excess, and a few don't respond to any. But our counselors and teachers watch that matter rather closely. We have the usual athletic teams, which turn in a fair percentage of interscholastic victories. We recognize the values of competitive athletics, but we try not to magnify those values out of proportion to others. I think I can safely say that teachers and students alike give far more attention to intramural sports, where everyone takes part. Our teachers of physical education are teachers first, and coaches incidentally. The effectiveness of their work is judged by the number of students participating in a wide variety of sports, rather than by the victories achieved by a few.

"Music, dramatics, pageantry, and dancing are our chief activities of the community group type. We have a band, an orchestra, and a chorus, whose schedules are well filled with performances for school and community audiences. Our students produce some creditable plays and they have written and performed some impressive pageants. Probably the most colorful activity is the large folk-dancing class. Miss Burton, the teacher, is something of a genius in that field. Her classes have become widely known in this part of the state, and receive more invitations than they can accept for performances away from home.

"You have seen some evidences of the preparations for the community festival. That is an all-community affair, but the school plays a large part in it. As a matter of fact, the idea originated here in the school four years ago, when a pageant was presented on United Nations Day to celebrate the anniversary of the founding of the United Nations. Hundreds of people came to see it, and it was so favorably received that we decided to continue it as an annual event. The next year the elementary-school children were brought in, and several adult groups, too. Now the festival has become the year's high point for all the arts. Hundreds of children, youth, and adults take part, and practically the whole community is the audience. The central theme is the progress which the nation and the world have made in achieving the aims of world democracy. Since those achievements change from year to year, each year's program is different. The festival is a great challenge to the ingenuity of our people.

"The activities of the third type—for personal and family enjoyment—are many. You have seen our handicraft shops and our art studios. We have a dozen or so hobby clubs—model airplane, radio and television, gardening, photography, nature study, and the like. Our library carries a good supply of current magazines and books for recreational reading, and we get these out to homes through the bookmobile. The recreation room is well stocked with games which can be played at home as well as in the school, and we have a game loan library. There are well over a hundred different games there, which families can play at home. Students can borrow them for two weeks at a time, just as they would take out books. Most of the game equipment is made in the handicrafts shops, and the game library is so popular that students are kept busy making additional sets."

Mr. Evans paused for a moment, then added: "Unless you have lived in the country, you can hardly appreciate the place of the rural school as a center of social life. When our school buses have made their afternoon deliveries, our students are scattered over an area of nearly two hundred square miles. Most of our students would have but little social experience with their fellows if they did not get that experience here at the school. That is why we have a recreation room, in which students can visit and dance and play games in their free time. That is why we have occasional dances and other social events during the school day. And that is one of the reasons why recreational and leisure-time interests have a large place in the school program.

"I could tell you as much again about our program for out-of-school youth and adults and about the use of the school as a community recreation center—but that is another story."

The Cultural Birthright of Youth

So far we have been thinking about personal development in terms of health, emotional stability, and the face-to-face relations of youth with their elders and their companions in work and play.

That, however, is only half of the story, as the teachers at Farmville will tell you. Growth, they say, is a process of interaction between organism and environment. The amount and nature of growth depend upon the environment as well as on the organism. The human organism, which we call a person, develops in an environment which, on its material side, is increasingly the product of the applications of scientific knowledge, and on its intellectual and social side is entirely the product of many centuries of human experience. We call that environment our civilization or our culture. One of the chief reasons why schools exist is to guide each oncoming generation into meaningful experiences with the more important aspects of our civilization. Mr. Grayson, a science teacher, likes to drive this point home with an illustration which is worth quoting.

"It is somewhat overdrawn, I admit," he says, "but I think it is useful. Suppose that you have a child endowed with the capacities of a Newton, a Mozart, and a Socrates. In early infancy, you place this potential super-genius in an isolated village in the interior of Borneo, and there you keep him, cut off from all contacts with the rest of the world. What will happen to him in the way of personal development?

"At best, he will grow a little beyond the narrow confines of the civilization of his Borneo village; and that is all. He may invent a new hand weapon for bashing the heads of enemy tribesmen. He may observe that certain herbs are more efficacious than the incantations of priests for relieving the symptoms of disease. He may introduce new rhythms into some of the tribal dances. He may question some of the grosser tribal superstitions, and try to make some of the village customs a bit more humane. But that is as far as he would go.

"In spite of his superb native equipment, he would never discover the law of gravitation, invent the differential calculus, write a symphony, or deliver a discourse on ethics. He would not know one solitary thing about the scientific method, mathematics, symphonic music, ethical principles, or logical reasoning. Instead, his mental furnishings would consist of tribal traditions, customs, and rituals; of taboos, magic, and superstitions. In short, our Newton-Mozart-Socrates combination is just an ordinary headman in a primitive Borneo village when he is cut off from the civilization in which his abilities might have flourished.

"Unfortunately, you don't have to send a child to Borneo to isolate him from important factors in civilization. You can cut him off from the understanding of science; of democratic government; of art, music, and literature; or of ethical principles, without ever moving him from the place where he was born. It is possible for a boy or girl to grow up in this community or any other, and have his personality dwarfed or distorted because of the poverty of his environment. Not only is that possible, but it happens, year in and year out, to thousands of children.

"Now, what does this mean for education? It means that there are some educational experiences which boys and girls should have because they are human beings, living in the United States of America in the middle of the twentieth century. These experiences do not have to be justified because they make a person a better worker, or a better citizen, or a better parent. They undoubtedly do all these things, but that is beside the point just now.

"It means that we as teachers are obligated to study the civilization in which we and our pupils live, to select those elements which are most important for the development of civilized persons, and to see that every child has opportunities for meaningful experiences with those elements. It is our job to help boys and girls become civilized human beings by giving them their rightful heritage of the true, the beautiful, and the good."

To make a long story short, the Farmville teachers have identified four areas in our civilization which they have called "the cultural birthright of youth."

"Every American youth," they have said, "should understand the meaning of the democratic way of life and should know how this way of life has been wrought into the fabric of American society and particularly into the processes of government.

"Every American youth should understand the structure and operation of the economic system, and should be sensitive to the effects, in terms of social well-being, of his economic acts as producer, consumer, and citizen.

"Every American youth should understand the scientific method and point of view and the influence of science on human life and thought, and should know those scientific facts fundamental to the understanding of the world in which he lives.

"Every American youth should constantly grow in his capacities to enjoy beauty and to understand and appreciate the best in literature and the arts."

We have already given considerable attention to the first two of these—the understanding of democracy and of economic processes. Here we need do no more than to review briefly what has already been said. The last two—the understanding of science and the appreciation of literature and the arts—will be treated more fully.

The Meaning of Democracy. We have seen that understanding of the democratic way of life is a prime objective of Farmville's program of education for civic competence.[10] Indeed, citizenship education would fail to achieve its chief purposes if it did not develop that understanding. One may know the salient facts about government, the important events and movements of history, and the pro's and con's of the public issues of the [illegible]—and yet his citizenship will be but an empty form and his culture [illegible] useless adornment if he does not understand the democratic way of life.[11] Democratic principles and practices are therefore stressed throughout the study of history and American political institutions.

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[10] See pages 82-106.

[11] National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1941. See especially Chapter III, "Democracy as a Great Social Faith"; and Chapter V, "The Loyalties of Free Men."

Understanding Economic Processes. Most of us spend the major part of our waking hours in economic activities—as producers of goods and services which other people consume and as consumers of goods and services which other people have produced. Farmville's teachers want their students to understand that these activities, which in years to come will occupy so much of their time and energy, are closely bound up with the values of life and with social well-being.

These teachers have the idea that the cultured person, among other things, is economically literate and socially sensitive. He knows how the economic system works and how it affects human welfare. He understands the long-range consequences of his own economic acts. He is concerned for the welfare of others as well as himself, and he acts accordingly. In a word, he views his economic activities in their social connections.

These economic understandings are taught throughout the school program in relation to their uses in life—particularly in connection with the activities of producers, consumers, and citizens. The school endeavors to develop, not only efficient producers and prudent consumers, but also citizens who are sensitive to social well-being and who are disposed to promote that well-being.

LOUISE F. DENNEY

Science. Watch the boys and girls in Farmville's agricultural laboratories, the boys in the machine shop and the electrical shop, the girls in classes on foods and nutrition, and the students engaged in studying health, and you will see a great deal of planned teaching of science and mathematics. You will also see a great deal of learning of facts and principles which will long be remembered and applied, because things are being learned in connection with their uses in life.

The teachers are not satisfied, however, to teach only the practical applications of science. For the past three centuries, they say, science has played a leading part in shaping our civilization. Today, it is a potent influence in directing the future course of our culture. Science is one of the chief elements in the cultural heritage; and the understanding of scientific methods and the scientific point of view is a part of the cultural birthright of youth.

The teaching of science begins early—not in secondary school, but in first grade. If instruction in science is postponed too long, the mind of the learner becomes stocked with unscientific habits of thinking and with assumptions and prejudices unsupported by facts. The everyday lives of pupils, in schools, in their homes, and on their farms, provide a wealth of opportunities for scientific learning. The school makes good use of these resources, and also of those found in the fields, the woods, and the streams—the book of nature, which, as Agassiz said, is always open.

Not only scientific facts are taught, but also the scientific methods by which facts are discovered. There is danger, the teachers believe, that the pupil may learn to take his science on the authority of the textbook or the teacher, and may fail to develop the attitude of critical inquiry which marks the scientific mind. Every elementary classroom is, therefore, used as a laboratory for simple experiments; and in secondary school, experimentation is carried much further. There experiments are a common means for finding the facts about foods, soils, the growth of plants and animals, the control of diseases, electricity, refrigeration, motors, and many other matters connected with occupations, health, and home life. By constantly practicing scientific inquiry, students develop a knowledge of experimental methods, an understanding of the nature of proof, and a respect for truth arrived at by rational processes, which they could hardly gain in any other way.

The ways in which science has influenced ways of living and thinking receive particular attention. A great deal is taught incidentally throughout the schools; but this is a matter, the teachers say, which deserves to be studied directly. A considerable part of the tenth-grade science course is, therefore, devoted to the role of science in human progress.

This course on "The Scientific View of the World and of Man" is worth a few moments of our attention. Without attempting to describe it in full, we may point out a few of its features.

Imaginative association with great scientists is used as one effective way of learning about scientific methods. The history of science is full of adventure and dramatic action, which appeal strongly to young people's interests and arouse their imagination. The lives of some of the great scientists are studied, representing the major scientific fields. These scientists are thought of as living men, facing difficult problems to which they do not know the answers, and confronting many obstacles rooted in ignorance and prejudice. In imagination, the students watch them at work, and look particularly for the methods which they use in attacking their problems. They see them, in Pasteur's words, "constraining themselves for days, weeks, even years, trying to ruin their own experiments, and only proclaiming their discoveries after having exhausted all contrary hypotheses." Thus the methods of science are taught as instruments which men have created and used to solve some of humanity's most important problems.

Some of the great scientific experiments are also studied, which are within the comprehension of tenth-graders—experiments of recent years as well as of the more remote past. Whenever possible, these are repeated in the school laboratory. Students see how the experiments and discoveries of scientists have changed our ways of living, how the work of Watt and Faraday made possible our modern systems of power machine production and rapid transportation, how the experiments of Boussingault and Mendel led to scientific agriculture, and how Pasteur and Koch revolutionized the treatment of disease.

Students trace the development of the view that we live in a world of natural laws, of orderly cause and effect, not a world of chance or arbitrary action. They observe the growth of faith that human intelligence, using the scientific method of inquiry, can discover the laws of nature and so bring the physical world increasingly under man's control. They also see that science has given man the basis of many of his highest hopes for a better world. For science not only makes progress possible, it also sets new goals for man to work toward. From the scientific point of view, disease, poverty, ignorance, and inequalities of opportunity are not evils to be passively accepted. They are evidence either that we have not yet solved some problems which can be solved, or that we have failed to apply the scientific knowledge which we already possess.

Throughout the year, an attempt is made to add to the students' stock of fundamental scientific principles and facts and to help students to see these as related parts of a whole. Most boys and girls, the teachers have found, are now able to develop a conception of a natural universe, operating according to laws, and of themselves as parts of that universe. When once this pattern of thinking has been well established, other facts and principles are fitted into it as students continue to learn.

The cultural aims of the teaching of science are well summed up in a statement prepared last year by the Farmville staff:

> An educated person will understand that science is based upon methods, which men have slowly and painstakingly developed, for discovering, verifying, organizing, and interpreting the facts about the world in which we live and about the people in it.
>
> He will know that the use of scientific methods has worked revolutionary changes in men's ways of living and thinking.
>
> He will see that the methods of science are one of mankind's chief instruments for making further progress.
>
> He will know that most scientific advances have depended upon precise measurement and accurate calculation and that mathematics is indispensable to scientific inquiry.
>
> He will recognize that problems in human society, as well as in the physical world, should be attacked by scientific methods and from a scientific point of view.
>
> He will be familiar with certain fundamental principles and facts from the sciences, which, when taken together, give him a sound view of the nature of the world in which he lives.

"If a person understands these things," commented one of the teachers, "we think he has gained the chief cultural benefits of science. If he doesn't understand them, his mind is living in the fifteenth century, no matter how many scientific facts he can recite or how many scientific gadgets he can operate."

Literature and the Arts. Literature and the arts are found often and in many places throughout the Farmville school program. We have seen how biographies, fiction, drama, and poetry are read in the course on history. Novels like *Tree of Liberty*, dramas like *Abe Lincoln in Illinois* and *The Patriots*, and the poetry of Whitman and Stephen Vincent Benét quicken the imaginations of youth as they study the meaning of the democratic way of life. Some students find that a painting by Grant Wood, a lithograph by George Bellows, or a song such as "America the Beautiful" or "Ballad for Americans" will express their feelings about some aspect of American life far more adequately than a prosaic essay on the subject. Moreover, literature and art are often the keys which open the doors to the culture of peoples in other lands and other times.

Music, drama, folk-dancing, pageantry, and recreational reading stand high among the leisure-time activities. In the classes on "Family Living," one sees that beauty in the home and its surroundings has a large place and that the place of good literature in the home is not forgotten. Business classes study beauty in the furnishings of offices and stores. Counselors often use biographies and novels to help students better to understand the vocations which they are considering, or to gain insight into their personal problems. In the study of economic, political, and social questions, teachers frequently find that a problem remote from the experiences of students can be made concrete and vivid through the use of novels and biographies.

Students' experiences with literature and the arts reach their culmination in the twelfth grade, where a generous portion of time is set aside for study and appreciation in this field. This course is remarkable in a number of ways which merit our attention.

The classes meet in a room quite unlike any other in the school building—a room that was planned for this purpose. Its paneled walls, built-in bookcases and cabinets, indirect lighting, and pleasing harmony of colors show that the architect was partner to the planning. Its beauty is enhanced by the furnishings—the large tables and comfortable library chairs, the draperies, rugs, and floor lamps, the vases of flowers from the school garden, and the half dozen prints and paintings which hang upon the walls. Even the equipment seems to belong to an artistic whole—the radio-phonograph set, the piano, the built-in motion picture screen and projection booth, and the dais. It is a beautiful room; yet there is nothing pretentious, nothing formal about it. It seems to invite one to enter and enjoy what he may find.

"We want this twelfth-grade course to be a great and glorious adventure for each one of our students," said one of the Farmville teachers. "We want it to be a time for the discovery of latent interests and talents and a period for growth in appreciation and enjoyment. We want our students to develop such a love for the beautiful and the good that they will continue to find inspiration and enjoyment in literature and the arts through all the years ahead.

"Throughout the year we expose our students to a wide variety of experiences of beauty—in music, poetry, drama, in other forms of literature, and in the visual arts. We try to suit these experiences to the students' diverse backgrounds and talents, for it is *growth* that we seek, rather than the attainment of some absolute standard. We encourage students to have a large share in planning their experiences. When new records, new books, or new prints are to be bought, the students help to choose them. Sometimes we all work together, sometimes in small groups, sometimes as individuals, for we must allow for differences in tastes as well as common interests.

"We try to keep these experiences of beauty close to the everyday lives of students. We do not want our boys and girls to think of beauty as something found only in art museums and concert halls. We want them to find beauty in their homes, in the pictures in their living-rooms, in flowers tastefully arranged, in radio programs, in their phonograph records, in the books they own or take from the library, in their gardens, in woods and streams and sunsets, in the little parks in the villages, and in the show-windows of the village stores.

"I have said that we expose students to these experiences of beauty. That, we think, is all that we can do. We sometimes call these experiences a part of the birthright of youth. One cannot compel a person to accept a birthright. You can only offer the birthright and say 'This is yours if you care to claim it.' But there are few who do not respond.

"We have a second aim," the teacher continued. "That is to make the reading of literature a means for the enlargement of experience. The person who knows and enjoys good literature can live vicariously through a wealth and range of experiences which otherwise could come to him only in a long and varied life under the most fortunate circumstances. He can make the acquaintance of great and noble men and women of the past and of the present. He can know the great characters of drama and fiction. He can travel to other lands and see life through the eyes of people of other cultures. He can enter into the hopes and disappointments, the struggles, failures, and successes of ordinary people like himself. He can learn to anticipate the great crises and dilemmas of life, which none of us, however fortunate, can escape; and he can know how other people have met these crucial tests, some nobly and some meanly, some with fortitude and some with fear. He can rejoice in life's beauty, laugh at its humor, and weep for its tragedies. For all of this, only three things are required—imagination, ability to read, and good books."

This rural school, moreover, is the center of literary and artistic interests for the entire community—for adults as well as for youth and children. In Farmville there are no art galleries, no concert halls, no museums, no theaters, no libraries apart from the school, no parks other than those developed by the school. Yet Farmville people may hear concerts of good music creditably performed, see good plays well acted, and enjoy the beauty of the out-of-doors in their own park, because the school helps them to provide these services for themselves.

The achievements of students in music or drama or pageantry are frequently shared with the community. But older people are not merely observers of their children's performances. They come to the school at nights. They have their own orchestras, their own choruses, their own "Little Theater." On some occasions, as in the case of the community festival, people of all ages, from kindergartners to grandparents, come together both as participants and as audience.

The school seeks to help people of all ages to enjoy beauty in their homes and their village communities. From the school library, every family may borrow good books, prints of good pictures, and records of good music. In the *Farmville School News* and the *Farmville Enterprise,* every family may find a list of forthcoming radio programs, selected by a committee of students and teachers as "the week's best listening" in music, drama, literature, and public affairs. Every family may enjoy a day's outing in Forest Park whenever it chooses. And every resident of Farmville may feel pride in the trees and shrubs and flowers which line the main street, give beauty and color to the school grounds and the public square, and cause even the hurried tourist from the city to take his foot off the throttle and remark: "You know, I'd like to live in a place like this."

Intellectual Achievement

The casual visitor to the Farmville Secondary School usually inquires, in the course of the day, "How well do the graduates of your school succeed in the liberal arts colleges and universities?" And he is usually surprised by the reply. Not that Farmville has had an unusual number of top-ranking students in colleges and universities. It has had its share, but no more. The remarkable thing is, rather, that no graduate of the new Farmville Secondary School has failed in college or university. The 16 percent of the graduates of this school who go on to the four-year colleges and universities have a creditable record of solid achievement which testifies, not only to their ability, but also to the soundness of their preparation for advanced work.

The casual visitor naturally assumes that a school which places so much emphasis on the present living of youth, on the improvement of community life, and on such practical matters as competence in occupations, citizenship, and family living, can hardly develop the discipline of sustained intellectual effort needed for success in advanced academic and professional study. He assumes, too, that students who have not followed a prescribed college preparatory curriculum in high school are going to lack both the knowledge and the mental disciplines required in the higher institutions.

Those who know the Farmville school well, however, are not surprised. They know that students at Farmville have many experiences which foster habits of intellectual effort and develop respect for intellectual achievement. And they know that these habits and this respect are developed under circumstances that make it likely that they will "carry over" to other situations, whether these be advanced study or the practical affairs of daily living.

For one thing, most of a student's learning at Farmville is directly *related to his purposes*. The student *wants* to do something, either as an individual or as a member of a group. He applies himself diligently to learn the things needed to do what he wants to do, and thereby develops habits of application and industry.

The Farmville teachers recognize, of course, that students' purposes alone are not adequate guides to education. Untutored purposes may be relatively trivial. But they also know that, under skilful teaching, a student's purposes will grow. They will grow in the number and kinds of people which they encompass. A purpose of "having a good time" for oneself may grow into a purpose of improving the recreational facilities for the entire community. They will grow in complexity. A purpose of enjoying the company of a congenial person of the other sex may grow into a purpose of becoming self-supporting, marrying, and establishing a home. They will grow in the time span covered. A purpose of earning a living may grow into a purpose of mastering the knowledge and skills needed to become a physician or a teacher. Nothing is more important to the Farmville teachers than growth in the scope, complexity, and time span of their students' purposes.

Closely related to purposeful learning is the students' experience of *self-direction in learning*. Boys and girls at Farmville are encouraged to take responsibility for planning and directing their own work. Many of their activities take the form of individual and small-group projects. This is particularly the case with those who plan to go to colleges and universities. Students who have become accustomed to directing their own intellectual efforts in high school usually find little difficulty in moving to situations where one must assume responsibility in order to succeed—whether those situations be in the world of work or in institutions of higher education.

For another thing, Farmville students are accustomed to *learn about things in their relationship* with one another. Their study of occupations and economic affairs is invariably bound up with matters of community welfare and citizenship. Their study of science is related to its applications in farming, health, and the professions. Their study of history begins and ends with its relationships with contemporary events and issues. Nothing is more important in any form of intellectual endeavor than the ability to perceive relationships.

Again, much of what students learn at Farmville must *stand up to practical testing*. Science and mathematics, for example, are applied to gasoline motors, electrical equipment, crop production, food preparation, and health. If the student's knowledge is faulty, or if there are errors in his calculations, the costly consequences are soon apparent to all concerned. Such experiences supply an effective stimulant to rigorous intellectual effort.

Indeed, in practically every area of learning, one finds that teachers and students together have identified certain *knowledge and operations which everyone should master* to achieve competence.

In mathematics, for example, the operations which all should master are identified during the earlier grades, and most students have learned them by the time they reach the tenth grade. Not all, however. For these, remedial instruction is provided until acceptable mastery has been achieved. After ninth grade, advanced mathematics is taught to all as needed in connection with agriculture, mechanics, business education, and homemaking, and in systematic courses for those whose occupational and educational plans require it. The school also operates a "mathematics workshop," with a teacher in charge at all times, where remedial instruction is given and where any student may go at any time for help with the mathematical operations which he needs to use.

So also with English language. The staff undertakes to develop reasonable mastery of reading and listening, and of written and spoken expression, by the end of ninth grade. Thereafter three ways are provided for further growth in language ability: (a) Those who still have language deficiencies receive remedial instruction. (b) Throughout the school, everyone has frequent experiences in the use of language, through oral and written reports, class discussions, reading, and dramatics; and every teacher has agreed that growth in the skills of language shall be one of the aims of his teaching, whatever his field may be. There is also an "English workshop," where students may go to have their reports read and criticized and to get assistance whenever they encounter language difficulties. (c) Those with special interest in the English language may elect advanced instruction in this field.

Finally, sustained intellectual achievement is fostered because the Farmville teachers *encourage intellectual curiosity.*

When Howard Daniels came to this school three years ago, his narrow world could be contained within the span of fifteen years and a radius of fifty miles. To be sure, Howard had read books and had enjoyed them; but his voluntary reading had been limited to highly improbable fiction. Then Howard discovered history. In the eleventh-grade course, he found that history could be filled with more interest and adventure than works of fiction. He read the materials needed for his class work, but did not stop there. Instead of chapters, he read books, and asked for more books. His teacher saw her opportunity. She talked with Howard about the books which he had read, helped him better to understand the great movements of history, and aided him in planning further reading. The boy's interest throve on such fare. Here was intellectual curiosity, the eagerness for knowledge for its own sake.

One might go on to tell of Enid White, whose keen mind and zest for science have carried her far beyond her fellow students in chemistry and biology; of Philip Scott, who solves problems in calculus for the fun of it; of Martha Burke, whose love of beauty and urge to create have flowered into exceptional artistic talent; and of other boys and girls whose eagerness to learn, in one field or another, outruns that of their fellows.

Teachers are always alert for evidences of intellectual curiosity; and whenever that curiosity appears, they do their best to nourish it. That is one reason why they spend so much time in counseling students and working with them individually. They are not satisfied when only a few students are eager for intellectual growth. They want to find and fan the spark of intellectual curiosity in every boy and girl, if that be possible.

That is one reason, too, why they attach so much importance to individual educational plans and to flexibility of class instruction. Students with special interests in such fields as chemistry, physics, mathematics, and history are able to pursue those interests within the regular classes, working as individuals or in small groups, and going as rapidly and as far as they can. Self-direction is encouraged, and increased with each new evidence of growth; yet the oversight of teachers is sufficiently close to safeguard the students against the dangers of superficiality.

Correspondence courses from the extension divisions of universities and colleges have proved helpful. They serve as useful guides for the more advanced work in such fields as science, mathematics, and history. They also make it possible for some students in Grades XIII and XIV to study in fields not regularly taught at Farmville. At present we find students enrolled in correspondence courses in foreign languages, photography, radio, forestry, aeronautics, and astronomy. Students do their work at the school, with the guidance of their teachers, while the courses are serviced by the extension divisions.

In the teaching of foreign languages, the school is making effective use of methods developed during the war, employing correspondence courses accompanied by phonograph recordings. Indeed, this method makes possible a wider choice of languages than was found in even the largest high schools, when class instruction was the only method used. This year, one teacher of languages is able to supervise students who are studying Russian, Spanish, French, Italian, German, and Latin.

There is no aristocracy of "subjects" in the Farmville curriculum. Mathematics and mechanics, art and agriculture, history and homemaking are all peers. For the teachers of Farmville believe that the key to intellectual growth is found, not in the inherent virtues of particular fields of learning, but in the strong purposes of the learner which impel him to attempt the difficult and to persevere until he has accomplished that which he has undertaken to do.

Nor does Farmville recognize an aristocracy of students, based solely on superior native talents. There are good athletes who have become such in spite of physical handicaps. There are also boys and girls of average mental ability, who, when once they have experienced the satisfaction of mental growth, have shown a zest for learning equal to that of some of their more gifted schoolmates. They, too, are eligible for the only aristocracy which Farmville knows —the aristocracy of those who have achieved.

Growth in Character

Implicit in all that we have written about the Farmville Secondary School, there is one aim which should now be made explicit. That is the purpose of fostering growth in character. A volume might be written on this subject, but perhaps we shall understand the matter as well from a brief statement recently made by the principal.

"A person's character, as we understand it," Mr. Evans began, "is his conduct in situations involving other persons, and his character is good to the degree that he consistently respects the rights of other persons and seeks their welfare, as well as his own. If that is correct, then opportunities for character growth exist whenever a student works or plays in association with others, or whenever he does anything that affects the welfare of others. And character growth takes place to the extent that the student becomes aware of the effects of his actions on others, and learns to give the same consideration to the welfare of others as he gives to his own. The essential of character was stated long ago by a teacher who said: 'As ye would that others should do unto you, even so do ye also unto them.'

"Whenever a teacher is alert to these opportunities and uses them wisely, that teacher is helping the student to develop good character. It is not necessary, of course, for teacher and students to talk about character in every situation. The experience of working democratically with others for some purpose larger than one's own welfare is often the best character education. The teacher who understands children will know when it is advisable to talk things over and when to let the experience stand by itself.

"It is quite impossible, in our judgment, to put one's finger on a few spots in the school program and say, 'This is our program of character education.' Every teacher is a teacher of character, for good or for ill. Every activity of the school may be an occasion of moral growth for some student, whether it be in the classroom, shop, laboratory, or playground.

"This is too important a matter to leave to chance. Teachers must agree that character development is a common aim, and each teacher must consciously make that aim his own. Teachers should agree as to what is *good* character, lest the learner be confused by a variety of moral climates within the school. Teachers must understand that character grows through learning, just as the ability to read and write grows, and they must know how this growth takes place and what level of character development they may reasonably expect of the pupils in their classes. Most important of all, I think, teachers must understand boys and girls and be able to look at situations from the students' points of view, which are often quite different from those of adults. We have found no quick or easy way for accomplishing these things. Whatever progress we have made has come from study and practice by teachers and frequent discussions in faculty meetings.

"Character education in school would stop far short of its possibilities if it were limited to school experiences alone. A person's character grows as he becomes sensitive to the rights and welfare of more and more people, including people whom he may not see face to face, but who are nevertheless affected by his actions. For example, a person may be most considerate of the welfare of the members of his family and of his friends and close associates, yet quite indifferent to what happens to many other people in his own community. Here, I think, lies the chief character value of the close relation between the school and the community. Through community studies, especially those involving firsthand contacts, students become responsive to the welfare of people other than their immediate associates, and in quite specific terms—such as the needs of these people for health services, for opportunities to work, for sufficient income to maintain a reasonable standard of living, and for fair treatment regardless of race or economic status.

"We must not forget the educational uses of the capacity for imagination. It is possible to extend the range of moral sensitivity beyond our own community to people in cities, in other regions of our own country, and in other nations, thanks to the fact that we are able to have vicarious as well as direct experiences. There are great resources for character education in literature, history, and in the study of the people of our own and other nations. But to be effective, the imaginative materials must have continuity with what the student has already experienced in his relations with other persons. Otherwise, the new experience is likely to be a matter of emotion divorced from action. And character is action.

"Now a word about ethical principles and ideals, which we consider particularly important in the character development of high-school youth.

"In the cases of younger children, ideas of right and wrong, standards of value, and religious views are largely those imparted by parents and teachers. A child may act contrary to the socially approved standards, but he seldom questions the standards.

"Adolescence, however, is another story. The adolescent is a questioning person. He wants to know 'Why is this right and that wrong?' If the only answers that we give him are that this is the customary and socially approved way of acting, or that he will be punished if he acts otherwise, he is not likely to be greatly impressed. He wants to get back of patterns of conduct to the principles or the values by which those patterns can be justified.

"Furthermore, adolescence is a period of moral conflicts. The natural drives of youth to be independent of their parents and elders, to choose their own companions, to control their own time and money, to plan their own futures, and to express their new-born powers of affection run head-on into habits and social customs—and if the battle is simply one between the drives and the customs, the drives are likely to win—usually at considerable cost to mental health, however. At such times boys and girls need help in finding purposes and ideals which are compelling in their appeals, and which will guide them in working out the solutions to their conflicts.

"Again, adolescence is a period of searching for life purposes. Choices are made in these years which may determine the entire course of a youth's life—choices of vocation, of education, of a place to live and work, the choice, perhaps, of a wife or husband, and so on. The adolescent may choose a purpose which is narrowly selfish—to make all the money he can and to get all that money can buy, without regard for other people—or he may choose a purpose of social usefulness. But whether we older people do anything about it or not, he will have a purpose of some kind.

"Moreover, for many a youth at least, adolescence is a period of dissatisfaction with the world as it is. The mistakes of his elders loom large. He sees the cruelty and costliness of war, the contrasts of wealth and poverty, the prejudices and injustices in the world around him—and he doubts the wisdom of the generations which, as he thinks, are responsible for such conditions. If young people are helped to find social purposes and ideals of a better society, to which they can give their loyalty, and if they are helped to find things that they can do which contribute to social improvement, then their dissatisfaction may become a constructive force for social progress. But if we ignore them, or worse, try to repress them, they are likely to become cynics or rebels.

"Finally, most adolescents—probably all of them, if we knew the facts—have some rather insistent questions about the meaning of life. They may not think about them often, but when they face some moral crisis or some tragic experience, these questions become of commanding importance. They are the age-old questions: 'What is man? Whence does he come and whither does he go? Why should the righteous suffer? Are all our human strivings and ideals part of some greater plan, or are they just an accident on a tiny bit of cosmic dust? What is worth living for? What is worth dying for?'

"I do not mean to imply that our students start out with abstract questions about ethical principles and ideals. They don't. They begin with concrete problems and conflicts, which grow out of their daily living and their observation of the world around them. Some of these they take in their stride and solve rather quickly, for better or for worse. But now and then there arises a problem so important, or a conflict so sharp, that the student does a great deal of serious thinking before he finds a way out. It is then that he searches for principles and purposes to live by—even though he may never use those terms.

"Have we in the school an obligation to help him? By all means, yes. And we can help him. We can help him to see the ethical issues involved in his immediate problem. We can help him to understand that other people have faced similar problems before and that he may be able to profit by their experience. And we can help him to take account of the best that human experience has to offer in working out the solution to his own problem.

"This is chiefly a matter of individual counseling, but not entirely. Much help is also given in classes where problems common to many students are dealt with—for example, in the classes on mental health and personal relations in the family.

"We can do more than this, however. We can help students become sensitive to ethical issues of which they have not been aware, through guided analysis of situations in school, home, and community life. We can help them to anticipate problems which they have not yet encountered, but which will surely arise as the years go on. And we can help them to become familiar with the best that human thought and experience have produced in the way of principles and ideals to live by through the study of literature, history, and of the meaning of democracy. Our literature is rich in works which deal with ethics and the philosophy of life—dramas, novels, biographies, poetry, and essays. The Bible contains many great passages which everyone should know and understand. We read them in our courses in literature, as records of the experiences of men of noble spirit and rare insight, seeking answers to the eternal questions of right and wrong and the meaning of life. History is a record of man's moral experiences and progress, as well as of his political, economic, and military activities. And democracy is at heart a great social faith, grounded in ethical principles which every high-school boy and girl can understand, and pointed toward ideals and purposes to which every youth can give his sustained loyalty.[12]

"The school, of course, is only one among several agencies which act to shape the characters of boys and girls. The greatest influence of all is doubtless that of the home. For that reason, our counselors and teachers try to maintain a partnership with parents throughout the years when children are in school.

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[12] National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Education of Free Men in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1941. Chapter III, "Democracy as a Great Social Faith"; Chapter V, "The Loyalties of Free Men."

"All of history bears testimony to the important role of religion and religious institutions in character development.[13] Here at Farmville, one finds close cooperation between the churches and the schools. Both churches and schools are well represented on both the community council and the youth council, and many of the projects for youth welfare receive their chief support from these two agencies. Local pastors and leaders in churches have been among the chief supporters of improvements in education for youth. The schools, in turn, have endeavored to strengthen the churches, chiefly through the voluntary services of schoolteachers, a number of whom teach in the church schools and act as advisers to young people's societies in the churches. Perhaps the most difficult problem which the churches face is that of securing trained leadership in religious education. It is gratifying to note that several of the schoolteachers have become particularly interested in that problem, and that they have been among the leaders in organizing and conducting the annual leadership training institute for the churches of the district."

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[13] See: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1951. Chapter V, "Partners."

CHAPTER 6

FARMVILLE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

ORGANIZATIONAL PLANS AND PURPOSES

IF THE reader has the impression that the Farmville Secondary School is, in William James' phrase, a buzzing, blooming confusion, the fault is ours as reporters. To be sure, the school is buzzing with activity, and to the person accustomed to well-ordered classes moving from subject to subject on an unvarying schedule, it may seem to be in confusion. But when one has spent a few days at the school, he finds that confusion is apparent rather than real, and that both teachers and students are following plans which are well understood by all. It is true, however, that we have followed the lead of the Farmville staff in placing questions of scheduling and sequences after the description of the program. For the staff first decided what they were going to do and why, and then did their best to make schedules which would help them to accomplish their purposes.

SCHEDULES AND SEQUENCES

Before we talk about schedules and the number of hours of work in this field and that, let us enter a strong warning. Perhaps we should print it across the page in large red letters: "THIS IS NOT A BLUEPRINT!" Certainly the Farmville staff would wish us to make this point emphatic. They would say that their program represents the best thought and practice which they have been able to produce to date, but not the best they will ever produce. They would insist that, like St. Paul, they are still "stretching forward to the things which are before."

The educator who reads these pages is, nevertheless, justified in asking: "Is it possible to include all these courses, community studies, home projects, work experiences, and the rest in the program of a public secondary school? If so, how is it done?" And he is entitled to an answer. We hope he will remember, however, that the answer for his school may be somewhat different from that of Farmville, and that Farmville's answer three years from now may be different from that of today.

There is nothing unusual about the framework of scheduling at Farmville, except that the seven-hour school day is somewhat longer than customary. There are seven periods of fifty-five minutes each. A student normally works for six of these periods and has one period free to use as he chooses. The school year is forty weeks in length. Each student therefore normally has 1200 work periods in the school year.

Sometime before the opening of school, the staff decides on the number of periods to be allocated to each course or area of learning. Let us take the tenth grade as an example. One hundred and twenty periods are allotted for the study of "The World at Work," 180 periods for other community studies, 200 periods for occupational study and practice, and so on. Then the staff lists the special projects which will require larger blocks of time than one period a day, as far as these can be foreseen. The study of "The World at Work," for example, should be completed within the first eight weeks, and requires students to go out into the community for several hours at a time. Three periods a day are allotted to this study. Other community studies will need double periods later in the year. The teachers of the tenth grade "Family Life" project want blocks of time from the twenty-second to the twenty-eighth weeks for students to plan and work on home projects. The teachers of recreational and leisure-time activities want double time during the weeks preceding the community festival. Occupational training does not begin in tenth grade until the twelfth week, after students have completed "The World at Work" study and have had time to work out plans with their counselors; but the teachers want larger blocks of time toward the end of the school year. Extra time is needed during the first two weeks to determine needs for remedial instruction and plan elective courses.

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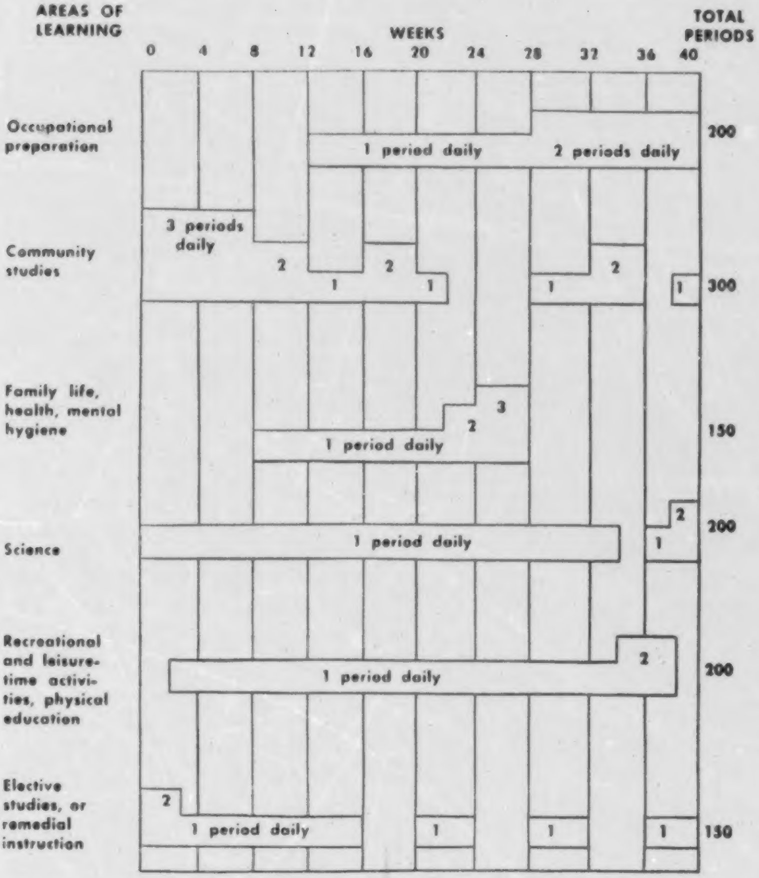
Taking these factors into account, the schedule for Grade X might look like this:



The matter is not quite so simple as this chart might indicate. The four all-day trips to American City have to be scheduled as do other projects of brief duration which may require three or more periods a day while they are being carried on. Some adjustments have to be made during the year for matters come up which cannot be foreseen. The schedule is reviewed once each month, and changes are made as needed.

Comparable schedules are made for the other grades, and all have to be fitted together so that teachers' schedules are reasonably even, though not unvarying, through the year. Such scheduling is not easy, but with a small staff of people who are committed to this way of working, no insuperable obstacles have been encountered.

Now let us look at the curriculum as a whole, in terms of the main educational purposes of the Farmville Secondary School. The grouping which follows must be used with caution, for most courses and projects serve a number of purposes. The study of "The World at Work," for example, contributes to occupational preparation as well as to education for civic competence. The year's work in literature and the arts enriches recreational and leisure-time interests. And so with others. On the opposite page is the sequence of "areas of learning" for the current year and the approximate number of periods assigned to each.

THE SCHOOL'S CONTINUING RESPONSIBILITY

Such is the program of the Farmville Secondary School as it relates to boys and girls who are in full-time school attendance. We have repeatedly noted, however, that the school's responsibility does not end when a boy or girl leaves full-time schooling at the end of Grade XII, XIII, or XIV. Every service of the school is available both to out-of-school youth and to adults.

Counselors, we recall, endeavor to keep in touch with all young people who leave the school, whether they remain in Farmville or elsewhere, until it is evident that they are reasonably well adjusted to the next step in their lives—whether it be a job or continuing education. Scarcely a day passes that does not see some former student return to the school to talk with a counselor or with one of the teachers. A young farmer wants the agriculture teacher to look over his plans for the farm which he has just rented. Another needs help in clearing up some points about recent developments in the government's agricultural program. A newly married couple seek counsel about the home they plan to build. A young mother needs information about child care. A young veteran returns to Farmville and asks advice about making a start at farming. A boy who left

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AREAS OF LEARNING	GRADE X	XI	XII	XIII	XIV
Preparation for Occupations					
Study and practice related to occupational preparation (including work in science, mathematics, social studies, English, or foreign language preparatory to advanced study in college or university, as well as education for agricultural, mechanical, commercial, and homemaking occupations)	200	300	400	600	600
Education for Civic Competence					
Community studies and civic projects, extending into larger areas (including "The World at Work")	300	100			
Historical study of "Man's Efforts to Achieve Freedom and Security"		300*			
Investigation of current political, economic, and social problems; study of their historical backgrounds; and civic projects			200	200	200
Personal Development					
Family life, health, and mental hygiene (including the domestic, personal, and health aspects of consumer economics)	150	150	100	100	100
Recreational and leisure-time interests, including physical education	200	200	100	100	100
Understanding and appreciation of the cultural heritage:					
"The Scientific View of the World and of Man"	200				
Historical study of "Man's Efforts to Achieve Freedom and Security"		300*			
Literature and the arts			300		
Elective studies or individual projects, or (in Grades X-XII) remedial instruction in English or mathematics, if needed	150	150	100	200	200
	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,200	1,200

*This course is listed twice, since it is a major part of the program in each area.

school three years ago at the end of twelfth grade would like to go to agricultural college next year. Another boy is moving to the city and wants advice about finding a job there. Others come in to inquire about the evening course in poultry husbandry, to join the orchestra, to discuss the next meeting of the young farmers' club, or to work on plans for the next community forum.

Four nights a week the Farmville Secondary School building is open; and, at least one night a week, each of the two outlying elementary-school buildings. We have already had a glimpse of the recreational activities which go on in these buildings in the evenings.[1] But recreation is not the only interest of adults and out-of-school youth. There are classes, organized whenever a need appears, in fields as varied as the activities of Farmville people. A part of the leadership is provided by teachers from the school, but not all.[2] There are other people in the community quite competent to lead adult groups, and they frequently do so.

A comprehensive program of part-time and evening classes in agriculture has been developed under the supervision of the teachers of agriculture in the Farmville Secondary School. Several of these classes are taught by successful farmers, one of whom is a graduate of the state agricultural college. A former home economics teacher, now married and living in Farmville, teaches two classes in homemaking for young wives and girls soon to be married. The librarian leads a group on "Recent Good Reading." The public health nurse teaches home hygiene, home nursing, and first aid. The proprietor of the local garage, a skilled mechanic, is in charge of the machine shop. A young married woman who is a talented musician directs the orchestra and chorus. It is the policy of the school to develop and use the leadership resources of the community—in other words, to help people educate themselves.

There is one service to adults and out-of-school youth particularly close to the hearts of half a dozen members of the school staff—that is education in public affairs. The education of the good citizen never ends. Conditions change constantly, on the world scene, the national, and the local. New issues arise. The information of three years ago, or even one, is behind the times. These teachers, working with the community council and with officers of local organizations, endeavor to help citizens keep abreast of the latest developments in public affairs and to provide an open forum for discussion.

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[1] See pages 119-26.

[2] Teaching of adult classes is a part of the regular teaching schedule—not an extra added to a full day in the secondary school.

At least once each month, there is a "Community Night" program at the school at which a public question of current interest is discussed by a competent individual or panel, with audience participation following. In addition, the school helps various organized groups in the community to arrange programs on public matters. We have seen that students in Grades XIII and XIV are able to assist in the leadership of these programs, and that they receive special training in leading forums and discussions, to the end that the community may increasingly supply its own leadership.[3] The library cooperates by supplying books and pamphlets on the topics under consideration,[4] and the school and village newspapers print weekly schedules of radio forums, round tables, and addresses on public affairs.

HOW THE FARMVILLE COMMUNITY IS ORGANIZED

How does it happen that the Farmville district—a run-of-the-mine rural community, enjoying no special advantages of wealth, location, personal leadership, or other resources—has accomplished the things which we have read about in the preceding pages? Whatever the complete answer may be, the outstanding fact is that there were people here who had both the desire and the ability to work together for the welfare of the entire community. Personal leadership was an important factor, of course, but this was no one-man achievement. Even at the beginning, several people shared the leadership, and they were always reaching out to get more people to join them.

Organizations are not new in Farmville. For many years this community has had churches, political groups, farmers' organizations, and a village businessmen's service club. But these organizations were limited both in membership and in purpose. Organizations representing the entire community and concerned with all aspects of community welfare have come only in recent years.

During the thirties, three local committees were organized to deal with various problems of the depression. The county agricultural agent called together a committee of farmers, to assist in operating the agricultural programs of the government. The county welfare director set up a second committee, to help meet problems of relief and to plan useful work projects for the unemployed. A little later, the county superintendent of schools assembled still another group, to serve as a committee on the emergency in rural education. These three committees had several members in common and many interests in common, for they were all trying to meet the impact of the depression on the Farmville area. Within a short time, they held a joint meeting and found the experience so profitable that they decided to continue to meet and work together. This Farmville Emergency Council, as it was called, was active for more than four years. Then, as depression problems receded, it lapsed into inactivity—but not without leaving a residue of experience in community cooperation.

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[3] See page 93.

[4] The library of the state department of education now has a bureau which supplies books, pamphlets, and motion picture films on a wide range of public questions.

The war brought new problems, and the people again felt the need for some means of working together. This time the move to organize was indigenous. The moving spirits were the new principal of the village high school (Myron Evans, who later became principal of the new Farmville Secondary School), the head of a farmers' organization, the president of the local service club, a doctor's wife who was a member of the board of education, a pastor, and a teacher of agriculture. They called a meeting to which representatives of all community groups and agencies were invited, and the outcome was the organization of the Farmville Community Council. Originally set up for the village of Farmville and its environs, the council soon extended its scope to include the smaller villages nearby and the surrounding rural areas. Several members of the school staff have been active in the council from the beginning.

The council has addressed itself to many tasks. Among these have been the problem of farm labor supply; war bond campaigns; helping men returning from the armed forces to become re-established; the merger of the five smaller school districts in the consolidated district; the financing of the costs of new school buildings and the enlarged school budgets; the establishment of a health center and library; the promotion of "Community Nights," combining recreation, entertainment, and discussions of community improvements or other public questions; and the establishment and operation of a number of producers' and consumers' cooperatives and of pools for the sharing of expensive farm equipment.

Questions relating to the needs and welfare of youth bulked so large that it was felt that the council could not give them the careful study which they merited, along with its many other interests. Moreover, there were some on the council who believed that young people should be allowed to share largely in the study of their own needs and the planning of youth services. So it was decided to establish a committee of the community council to deal particularly with the needs of youth, which became known as the youth council. Part of the youth council's membership is drawn from the community council, namely, representatives of the schools, the parent-teacher association, and other organizations concerned with youth welfare. The youth council also includes youth representatives from each of these agencies and from some youth organizations not included in the community council, for example, the Future Farmers of America, the 4-H Club, the Farmville School Alumni Club, and the church young people's federation. There is also a representative of employers. Membership is about evenly divided between youth and adults.

The youth council elects its own officers, who may be either adults or young people. The functions of the council are stated simply: (a) to study what needs to be done in the interests of youth, (b) to make plans for getting such things done, (c) either to recommend these plans to the proper agency or to act to carry out the plans, whichever may be appropriate, and (d) to see that youth have as large a part as possible in planning and working for their own welfare.

There are only a few organizations in and around Farmville, and their officials know each other well and are now accustomed to work together for a variety of purposes. Therefore, the youth council has only a minor interest in coordinating the work of youth agencies. Students conduct most community surveys that are needed, as a part of their schoolwork. So the youth council is not a fact-finding organization; it may and does propose matters for investigation.

Its vitality depends upon the existence of jobs to be done for the welfare of youth; and since there has been an abundant supply of such jobs in the postwar years, the youth council has flourished. Among its accomplishments are these: It enlisted the cooperation of all employers in the annual occupational survey. It persuaded employers to earmark learners' jobs for older students from the school. It campaigned among businessmen, householders, and farmers for listing with the school counselors all temporary, part-time, and summer jobs for youth. It worked for the employment of a district recreational director. Through state park officials and the state department of education, it initiated the plan for a summer camp for conservation work in a state park about fifty miles distant, employing youth from several consolidated schools. It has raised funds to send six Farmville youths to the state rural youth leadership conference at the state agricultural college for two weeks each summer, and it has advised school officials regarding the opportunities for continuation study needed by youth after they leave the Farmville Secondary School.

Each year brings its supply of new problems. Each year also brings new members to the council, and often, with them, new ideas. So it seems likely that both the youth council and its parent body will be permanent Farmville institutions.

SOME MATTERS OF ADMINISTRATION

The most important thing about any educational agency is what happens to the people whom that agency serves. Everything else—administration, organization, financial support, plant and equipment, even the teaching staff—is a means to the end of helping boys and girls, men and women, to *learn*. For that reason, we have given many pages to the report of what people learn at the Farmville Secondary School and how they learn. For the same reason, we shall be correspondingly brief in discussing organization and administration.

In these closing pages, we shall sketch the administrative organization of the school, add a few words about the community school plant, and describe the main features of the school's plan for providing financial aid to students.

The Administrative Organization of the Schools

The present Farmville school district was formed five years ago by the consolidation of five small districts, all of which had elementary schools, two of which had high schools. Without the consolidation, the school which we have described would have been impossible. The district includes an area of approximately 200 square miles, a population of some 6000—1000 in Farmville, a total of 1000 in four other villages, 4000 on farms. The number of children and youth from six to eighteen is approximately 1500.

The district maintains the Farmville Secondary School (Grades VII through XIV) and three elementary schools—one in Farmville, one at Four Corners, and one at Valley View—all under the same board of education and superintendent.

Control of educational policy rests with the board of education.[5] The district superintendent of schools is the executive officer of the board, responsible for presenting policies and programs to the board and for carrying out these policies and programs after the board has approved.[6] The board also employs a district director of recreation and a librarian for the district public library, both of whom are responsible to the superintendent.[7]

Within this framework of administration, a great many people, as we have seen, take part both in formulating policies and in carrying them out. In the first place, the principal of the secondary school and the teaching staff—working together as we have repeatedly observed them—frequently develop policy proposals for presentation to the board.[8] When these proposals come up for consideration, it is common practice for staff representatives to attend the board meeting, and for the entire group to discuss the proposals thoroughly before the board takes action. The principal and the staff bear full responsibility for carrying out approved policies in the school.[9] The staff, in turn, has admitted student representatives to a responsible part in the planning of courses, projects, and other educational services, and also to the process of formulating policy proposals.

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[5] National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938. p. 42, 59.

[6] *Ibid.*, p. 59-61.

[7] National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Social Services and The Schools*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1939. Chapters IV and V.

[8] National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*. Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1938. p. 67.

In the second place, the lay citizens of the community frequently advise the board on youth needs and propose policies for consideration by the board, through the community council and its offspring, the youth council. Representatives of these councils commonly meet with the board when their proposals are discussed. Since the school staff is represented on both councils, and the students also on the youth council, there is rarely any sharp disagreement between proposals coming from the councils and those originating with the school. Usually the proposals either support or complement one another. But even if there were disagreement, the superintendent and the board members believe that it would be essential to maintain lines of communication with organizations in which citizens are well represented, for in the long run, the people are the ultimate judges of educational policy.[10] Few if any of the major advances of the past five years would have been possible without the support of the community council and of the members of the organizations represented in the council. And it is doubtful that this support would have been forthcoming had these citizens not had a part in shaping the plans and policies.

Farmville has been fortunate to have able leadership and wise administration at the local level. This alone, however, could not have brought the school more than a fraction of the distance it has traveled. Able leadership and wise administration at the state level were also necessary—and they have not been wanting. The state department of education in recent years has greatly enlarged the scope and improved the quality of its educational leadership. It has done this in part by direct services to schools, through publications, through conferences and workshops, and through personal services of staff members. Its policy throughout has been to encourage local initiative and resourcefulness, rather than to prescribe to the local authorities. Of even greater importance in this period, the state department has worked to secure changes in state laws and increases in state funds for education; to revise regulations and procedures and reorganize administrative machinery to suit the needs of the times; and to integrate the youth services of local school districts into a statewide system.[11]

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[9] *Ibid.*, p. 61, 62, 67, 70, 71.

[10] *Ibid.*, p. 42, 68, 71, 78.

The Community School Plant

It was indeed fortunate that there were men and women in Farmville who insisted on planning for new kinds of educational services and a new type of school, to serve all the youth of a large area. Farmville folk might easily have accepted the traditional pattern of school district organization and the traditional type of rural high school as the framework for planning. Had they done so, they would have accomplished only minor improvements. The two village high-school buildings would have been replaced with new structures serving the same purposes as the old. The small district pattern of organization and educational program would thereby have been "frozen" for decades to come.

The people of Farmville were ready, however, and they were ready with plans suited to the times. Consolidation of districts had already been voted. The board of education, with support from the community council, had decided that it wanted a school building which would serve the educational needs of the entire community, including older youth and adults; that the building should be planned to accommodate other community service agencies, such as a library and a health center; that the auditorium should be suited to community forums, concerts, dramatic programs, and public meetings of all kinds; that formal classrooms should give way to conference rooms, adaptable to a variety of uses by pupils and adults; that ample provision should be made for shops and laboratories; that the recreational facilities of the school should be available for public use in the evenings; and that the entire building should be designed with a view to the health and safety of students and teachers. Technical assistance was available from U. S. Office of Education publications, from the state department of education, from teachers colleges and schools of education, and from several other excellent publications on planning of community schools. With these aids, the board of education and its architects were able to design a school building suited to the program which has been described.[12]

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[11] For a more complete description, see Chapter 9, "A State System of Youth Education."

The location of the school was also an outcome of advance planning. The Farmville people wanted their school plant to include a farm—one large enough to permit practice in farming by those agricultural students whose parents did not have farms. By locating their school about half a mile from the village, they were able to lease seventy acres—fifty under cultivation, twenty wooded—with an option to purchase. Two years of experience confirmed the wisdom of their decision. They secured a loan, purchased the property, and found that the produce and rentals from students would cover a large part of the amortization costs. As we have seen, several acres of this land near the school were subsequently used for an outdoor recreation center, while the wooded section was made into a community park and outing area.

Not all the needs were anticipated, however. Several additional shops were needed, and the plan for a model farm home was developed. These structures were built largely by students, and their construction provided valuable training for the boys who worked on them, and in some cases, a means of earning school expenses as well.

Student Work and Income

Equality in educational opportunities depends upon two conditions. Opportunities suited to youth needs must be available, and youth must be able to take advantage of them.

The Farmville district, we have seen, has been able to go far toward providing educational service designed to meet the needs of all its youth. It is conceivable, however, that many youth might not be able to use these services. Some might live at too great a distance from the school. Some might be compelled by their parents to leave school as soon as legally permissible, when it was advisable for them to continue. Some might lack the funds to buy clothes and meet other personal expenses. The board of education and the Farmville Secondary School staff, with state aid, have attempted to remove such obstacles.[13]

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[12] Approval of minimum standards by the state department of education was required. See page 44, footnote 5.

Handicaps of distance have been removed by free bus transportation. School buses travel to within easy walking distance of the most remote residence in the district.

Parental indifference to education has been largely eliminated by making parents partners in the shaping of their children's educational plans. When misunderstandings occur, as they sometimes do, a home visit from a counselor or teacher usually serves to clear them up. There are exceptions, of course, but they are now rare.

The most difficult obstacles are financial. The cash income of most farm families is insufficient for tuition and living expenses away from home, and sometimes not enough for more than the minimum necessities of clothes and food. Furthermore, families are generally large. Younger children must be fed and clothed from the family income. Older children feel that they should at least pay their own way.

Thanks to aid from state funds, public education is free through Grade XIV—whether a youth studies in Farmville, American City, or elsewhere. The Farmville district will pay the local share of the cost of education in any public school in the state, and state funds follow school attendance.

School activities are also free. Since the school looks upon athletics, dramatics, music, journalism, and social experience as integral parts of education, it sees no justification for charging fees for these activities. All books are available in the school library, and there are no fees for laboratory or shop work.

Students' financial problems therefore center in their ability to earn enough to meet personal expenses, and, in some cases, to contribute something to the family budget. Out of a student body of eight hundred above Grade VI, about three hundred each year must earn all or a part of their personal expenses. The four counselors are chiefly responsible for helping students to meet their financial problems, and to date they have had encouraging success.

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[13] The discussion which follows is applicable in principle to larger communities and will therefore not be repeated in chapters on American City.

1. There are part-time jobs in private employment, in the village, on farms, and away from home in the summer months. Many are temporary, most of them give only a few hours work a week, but taken together these part-time jobs are the largest single source of student income.

2. There are part-time jobs in the school, carried as a part of the regular school budget; and a few similar jobs with other public agencies.

3. The third resource is productive enterprises carried on by students on farms, in their homes, in the village, or on property rented from the school. Such enterprises are often assisted from the local district's student-aid funds. Small investments, for example, are often made in equipment, livestock, or seed, which students use as a means for earning money.

Since the problems faced by Farmville's counselors are found in almost every school, it may be helpful to review the *main features of the student aid program,* as they appear after four years of experience.

1. Each student is expected to render some service to the school and the community each year, without pay, as his or her contribution to the common welfare. Checking books in and out at the library, cleaning the cafeteria after lunches, desk duty in the school office and the game library, and grading and rolling the ground for the community playground are examples. Students are rotated on such work, so that each has his fair share of the interesting and the routine.

2. There are, however, jobs in the school which require more time, continuous work throughout the year, and some skill developed through experience; for example, cataloging books in the library, cashier duty in the cafeteria, playing accompaniment for choral classes, and assisting in custodial work. On these jobs, students are paid hourly wages comparable to those in private employment. As these services are essential to the operation of the school, they are included in the regular school budget.

3. Students are not paid for work performed primarily for its learning value, even though it may be productive. For example, boys in the farm machinery shop and girls in the school kitchen do a good deal of productive work during their first year, but they are not paid, for they are in the shop and kitchen primarily to learn.

4. Students are paid for work on productive projects, however, when they have developed reasonable skill and when such work is in addition to their normal educational programs. Boys frequently do work of this kind during rush seasons in the farm machinery repair shop, in the refrigeration plant, and in the feed mill. Girls do the same in the school kitchen during the canning season, and in the accounting and mineographing offices when work is heavy. In such cases, student wages are added to costs of production.

5. There are also a few continuous jobs on productive projects which require considerable skill and, frequently, managerial ability as well. Some such jobs held by older students are foremen in the cooperative plants, manager of the farm machinery shop, and head assistants in the school lunch program. All of these jobs pay regular wages. Most of them are reserved for the "work experience projects" of advanced students.[14]

6. As far as possible, students are helped to get work which is related to their educational and occupational plans. This is usually practicable for jobs within the school and other public agencies. It is more difficult in cases of private employment. Through the community youth council and the parents' organizations, the counselors have been able to get nearly everyone in the community to agree to employ youth through the counselor's offices. While avoiding arbitrary assignments of student workers, the counselors have in many cases been able to match jobs with youth interests, to the mutual advantage of employer and worker.

7. Every work experience, however remotely related to occupational plans, is considered a part of the youth's education. The teacher in the student's major field of interest is responsible for enlisting the cooperation of the employer and for helping the youth to gain the maximum learning from the experience. Counselors are included, of course, in the planning of all such experiences.

8. Counselors know the students who must earn money and the approximate amount which each student needs. They undertake to find work of some kind for everyone who needs it.

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[14] See discussion of productive work experience in Farmville, page 71-73.

9. Increasingly the school is using its local student-aid funds to help students earn money through enterprises which they manage themselves. For example, the school has bought a power spray, a lime spreader, a power saw, and a small tractor. Crews of boys learn to operate and maintain these machines, and contract to work for farmers. Machinery is thus made available which many individual farmers would be unable to afford, and farm labor costs are thereby reduced. Students get a larger return for their labor when they have equipment. Most important of all, the educational values of these experiences are usually greater and more varied than those of work for hourly wages. Business arrangements and accounting are supervised by the school, and experience in these matters also is educational. Many other projects might be cited, among them the canning of food by groups of girls, using pressure cookers furnished by the school; individual and group farming on land rented from the school; wiring farm buildings for electricity; and the making of home craft products for marketing.

RETROSPECT AND PROSPECT

This completes our review of the activities of the Farmville Secondary School. We have seen that the keystone of the school program is guidance, a process whereby boys and girls are helped to plan their own lives in the light of all the facts that can be mustered about themselves and the world in which they live and work. Within this process, the Farmville school seeks to provide for each youth a program of learning experiences—a curriculum—which in his judgment and in the judgment of the staff of the school is most likely to meet his particular needs, abilities, and plans. This program includes preparation for a useful occupation, education for citizenship, and personal development for every boy and girl. The entire life of the school is so organized that the fullest cooperation in the education of youth exists between the activities of the schools and activities of other agencies in the Farmville community.

It is time now to leave Farmville in order to examine the schools of a quite different kind of community—American City. Before we move on, however, there is one fact about the Farmville situation that is of supreme importance. *The school staff and the community* *in Farmville are not satisfied with what they have done.* They feel that they are making progress, but they know that many problems remain to be solved. They do not look upon their program as the summit of perfection, nor do they regard the Farmville Secondary School as an institution which cannot be altered quickly whenever it may be desirable to do so. This continuing discontent, this lack of complacency, this eager, forward-facing philosophy is perhaps the best summary of the point of view of the Farmville Secondary School, the best explanation for its success so far, and the most hopeful augury for its continued growth and improvement.

CHAPTER 7

SCHOOLS FOR YOUTH IN AMERICAN CITY

THE DEVELOPMENT OF A PROGRAM FOR ALL YOUTH

AMERICAN CITY might be any one of two hundred or more cities in the United States. These cities differ from each other at this point and that, but their common characteristics are far more numerous than their differences. They are the nation's centers of manufacturing, trade, finance, transportation, and government. American City represents the third of the nation that is distinctly urban.[1]

In the pages that follow, we shall begin with an overview of American City, noting particularly the effects of the depression, World War II, and the postwar years of tension and international conflict, and the ways in which they have influenced education. We shall report the progress which the people of American City have made toward achieving better community life through comprehensive, long-term planning. And we shall inquire particularly about the present conditions of young people from sixteen to twenty-one.

Then—because this is a book about education rather than the life of cities—we shall turn to the public schools and sketch some striking characteristics of youth education in American City today, calling attention to the ways in which education has changed in recent years.

This leads to the question: By what processes were these changes brought about? Many readers may be more interested in the processes of the change than the products. Therefore, before describing the details of the present program of youth education, we shall tell the story of how this program was developed and of how teachers, administrators, board of education members, parents, youth, employers, labor officials, and many other citizens all had a part in it.

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[1] In 1950, 35.4 percent of the population lived in cities of 50,000 or more; in 1940, 34.4 percent.

Finally—and this will constitute the greater part of the chapter—we shall tell with some completeness how the three high schools and the new community college are endeavoring to provide adequate educational services for *all* the youth of American City and to serve youth beyond high school for a larger region as well.

NUMBER OF CITIES WITH POPULATIONS OF 50,000 OR MORE (By regions, 1950)

New England	28
Middle Atlantic	35
South Atlantic	26
East North Central	48
West North Central	16
West South Central	22
Mountain	6
Pacific	22
Total	203

Source: U.S. Census Bureau

INTRODUCING AMERICAN CITY

Before we begin to describe the schools of American City, we need to know some things about the community and its people. We had better make our inquiries of the man who, so everyone says, knows more about this community than anyone else—Robert Burnham, executive director of the American City Planning Commission. The reader, we think, will be better introduced to American City if we listen to Mr. Burnham's own words.

"The history of this city," Mr. Burnham began, "falls into two periods—pre-1930 and post-1930. Before 1930, the story is fairly simple. The city was one of the first places founded after the Northwest Territory was opened up, and its record from then up to 1930 was one of slow, steady growth. There were ups and downs, of course, along with the rest of the country, but no big booms and no slips backward. It has always been a center of commerce and transportation, for it is situated at an intersection of two natural trade routes—one east-and-west, one north-and-south. It has been a manufacturing center, too, for longer than anyone can remember.

"There was no comprehensive plan for city development before 1930. The usual zoning, of course. Otherwise the city 'just growed,' like Topsy. It added new industries and commercial firms from time to time, and the old ones got bigger. When more houses were needed, somebody opened up a new subdivision. The old city boundaries were outgrown three times, and now the city is spilling over into the suburbs again.

"The schools? Ah, the prosperous twenties were great days for American City's school officials. The city built two new high-school buildings and several junior high and elementary schools, too—all between 1923 and 1929. And in 1930 we pointed with pride to the fact that two out of every three children of high-school age were enrolled in high school.[2] Our speakers on the subject usually forgot to add that the percentage of those in high school was eighty-six in the well-to-do area served by Washington High School and only fifty-seven in the lower income area on the south side, where Lincoln High is located. But such differences were more or less taken for granted in those days.

"Our schools made educational advances in those years, too. Many of the courses of study were revised from bottom to top, chiefly by committees of teachers working with the curriculum staff in the central office. The program of vocational education was enlarged, the social studies were brought closer to the life of the community, and some good things were added in the way of art, music, physical education, and guidance.

"I shan't dwell longer on pre-1930 history. It is simple compared to the history of the past twenty years. From 1930 to 1940 American City was struggling with the depression, and from 1940 onward the city felt the full effects of World War II and its aftermath. We have not had much slow, steady growth and gradual development in recent years. Instead, we have had a series of swift, sudden, far-reaching changes, sometimes for better, sometimes for worse. When we talk about American City today, we have to remember that many of the conditions which we now find are the results of changes which have occurred during the past ten or twenty years. Often processes of change are quite as important as products.

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[2] Enrolment includes private and parochial, as well as public, high schools.

"For example, if I tell you that the city's population is 150,000, that may not mean much to you. But if you learn that 30,000 of our people moved into the city between 1940 and 1950 and that these were more than had previously moved in between 1900 and 1940, you will realize at once that we have faced some rather difficult problems of providing housing and schools and hospitals for all these newcomers, especially in wartime, when both manpower and materials were scarce. Or if I say that five out of every six of our people are native-born whites, that there are some 12,000 foreign-born whites, and nearly as many Negroes, those are just static facts.[3] But when you know that the Negro population practically doubled during the forties, while the white population increased by 20 percent, you will understand that we have had some particularly acute problems connected with the housing, health, and education of our Negro citizens and some aggravated questions of race relations as well."[4]

Mr. Burnham paused for a moment, shuffled a handful of charts and tables, then laid them aside and went on.

Some Effects of the Depression

"No, I don't think it will help you much to listen to figures and look at charts until you know more about the things that happened to us in the thirties and forties. The depression hit us early and with full force. Our chief economic interests are manufacturing, trade, finance, and transportation, and each of these slumped badly, as you know. By 1933, 12,000 of our 48,000 employable workers were out of jobs. You know what happened, for you lived through these years somewhere. We had direct relief, work relief, people using up their savings, partial recovery, a recession, and then another partial recovery—but we didn't get nearly back to full employment until the war came along. As late as 1940, we still had 6000 unemployed.

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[3] It is assumed that American City is located in the East North Central region. If it were in the East South Central region, its population might consist of 108,000 native-born whites, 2000 foreign-born whites, and 40,000 Negroes. If it were in the West, its Negro population would probably not exceed 3000. If it were in the Middle Atlantic region, it would probably have 20,000 foreign-born whites.

[4] If American City were located in one of the states where separate schools are provided for children of different races, equal educational opportunities would be provided for each racial group.

"Now, you are interested in education rather than economics, so I won't give you a lecture on the general effects of the depression. But here are a few effects that are closely tied up with education.

"For one thing, the rate of unemployment was consistently higher for young people in their late teens and early twenties, who were out of school and wanted to work, than for any other age group.

"For another thing, during the depression we became aware of the particular needs of our large body of out-of-school youth. And we found that we had no public agency which could take the responsibility for the welfare of this exceedingly important group. At that time, neither the schools, nor the NYA, nor the CCC,[5] nor the public employment service, nor the private agencies, nor all of them put together were providing the kind of continuous guidance and educational services that these young people needed during the critical period of initial adjustment to adult life.

"Again, many of us were convinced that the emergency solution to youth problems was not a permanent solution. I'm not criticizing what was done as emergency measures, you understand. But I do say that it is not fair to boys and girls to compel them to shop around at two or three different agencies, and probably to spend a good deal of time in idleness along the way, in order to get the training and experience needed to begin work. These boys and girls have a right to expect the schools to carry them right through on a straight line of education, practical experience, and guidance, until they are well started on their first jobs.

"A fourth thing we learned from the depression was that from this time forth economic affairs and government would be closely interrelated. That meant that if the American people were to solve their economic problems by democratic means, a great deal more understanding of economic matters would have to be included in the equipment of the rank and file of American citizens. There, too, was a job for the schools.

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[5] The National Youth Administration and the Civilian Conservation Corps were efforts made by the federal government to meet the depression needs of youth during the thirties. The former (NYA) provided high-school and college youth with cash payments for useful work done in the schools in which the youth were enrolled. The latter (CCC) established work camps for youth, who engaged in various kinds of natural resource conservation work. As time went on, both the NYA and the CCC developed educational programs that, in some situations, came into competition with the regular secondary schools. Both these organizations were disbanded in the early forties.

The Years of World War II

"Well, we were just beginning to see these depression lessons clearly when along came World War II and pushed the depression into the background. As a center of manufacturing, we felt the war's impact early. Most of our larger factories were converted to the production of war materials, and soon they began to operate twenty-four hours a day. Additions were built to existing plants, and a new factory for airplane parts was erected. At the same time, the young men began to leave for the armed forces. Their number mounted, until, in time, more than 10,000 had gone.

"Only a few months before, we had had 6000 unemployed. And now, suddenly, labor was becoming scarce. A nationwide program for training war production workers was financed by the federal government and carried on locally through the public schools.[6] That called for prompt action by the school authorities. People came into the schools by the hundreds and then by the thousands—first, the unemployed; then, workers who were leaving other jobs for war production work; women who had never before been in factories or even worked outside their homes; older people, once retired, now returning to work for the duration; and high-school boys and girls eager to get jobs as soon as work permits could be secured.

"Yes, almost before they were aware of it, the schools were engaged in training adults and youth for work on a scale far exceeding anything imagined in the past. The school shops were in use twenty-four hours a day, not only for training purposes but for actual production of war materials. During the years 1940-1945, more than 12 million older youth and adults throughout the nation were given instruction in skills necessary to the war effort. Here in American City, the number of people trained each year for war production work was twice as great as the number of boys and girls annually graduated from the three high schools. The schools did a good job, too. Both the trainees and the employers were well satisfied, and the program was continued throughout the war. These experiences, you may be sure, have had their part in shaping the permanent program of the schools.

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[6] College-level training in engineering, scientific, and management fields was provided by a comparable program operated through the institutions of higher education of the state.

"The war brought the schools a new youth problem, just the reverse of that of the thirties. Enrolments had increased right through the depression. But as soon as the war came, enrolments began to drop sharply because many boys and girls were leaving school and going to work at the earliest legal age. In the thirties, the question had been how to find jobs for youth after they left school. In the war years, the question was how to keep youth in school long enough to give them the minimum of education which they would need for permanent employment, for military service, and for the responsibilities of adult citizenship and family life. This problem was solved in part by developing combined study-and-work programs for high-school boys and girls—usually four hours of class work and four hours on the job—and by allowing school credit for work which met certain standards and was carried on under supervision of the school staff. This, too, had its influence on the permanent postwar program.

"The war left many other marks on education in American City. During the war years, about 25,000 people moved into the city in response to the call for workers in war plants. Within a short time, it became apparent that most of these new residents wanted to remain here permanently.

"That meant, first of all, a problem of housing. These people had to have places to live. During the war we got along with temporary houses and makeshift arrangements—families doubling up in the use of houses and living in furnished rooms and trailer camps. We had to get along with this, or thought we did. But as a permanent arrangement, the situation was intolerable. So we had to face the question whether the public had any stake in seeing that these people were decently housed; and we decided that the public had a large stake. We had to consider how the public could protect its stake through the actions of agencies of government and of voluntary planning bodies. Then we had to act. This may seem somewhat remote from education, but it is not. For the problem was taken into the curriculum of the schools, and the study of housing and of city planning moved into the front ranks in high-school and community college classes.

"Our new citizens also brought us the problem of expanding our public services. How could we increase our hospital and health services by 20 percent and provide schools and playgrounds for 5000 more children? The schools and other agencies did the best they could under the circumstances, but few people thought the provisions were adequate. The fact was that we had suddenly outgrown our public services, and we were due for some long-term citywide planning in this field, too. That also has found its way into the curriculums of our schools.

"One could go on talking about the influence of the war for hours, I suppose," Mr. Burnham continued, "but I'll make one more observation, and then leave the war. We took our home-front duties seriously here in American City, and in doing so we learned a great deal about working together in neighborhoods, as well as in the city as a whole.

"The schools did their part on the home front willingly and well. They took over the jobs of registering people for Selective Service and the various ration books. They sold war bonds and stamps, conducted campaigns for salvaging and conserving materials, promoted victory gardens, organized a system of protection against air raids, and rendered innumerable services to civilian defense agencies. They provided day care for the small children of working mothers and afternoon recreational programs for their older children. They tackled the problem of rising juvenile delinquency and did what they could to provide recreation and social activities for youth in out-of-school hours. They offered preinduction training courses for boys, improved their training in health and physical fitness, taught more about consumer economics and war aims and issues, and sought to interpret the programs of rationing and price control. They did all these things while they were steadily losing many of their teachers to the armed forces and other war services.

"However, I'm not here to deliver a eulogy of the schools in wartime. What I want to point out is that through these home-front activities educators developed some ways of working which have stood them in good stead in the postwar years.

"For one thing, they became accustomed to think and act in terms of larger units than single departments and single schools. When a war activities committee was set up in a high school, its membership cut across the conventional departmental lines, and its purposes encompassed the entire program of the school. When a school committee was organized for a neighborhood, it included representatives from elementary, junior high, and high schools, and it was concerned with the entire range of wartime needs of children and youth in the neighborhood as a whole. Comparable things happened with citywide committees.

"For another thing, teachers became better informed about the neighborhoods in which their schools were located and more familiar with people and agencies in these neighborhoods. Many of the wartime activities took both teachers and pupils out into the neighborhoods and involved cooperation with many neighborhood groups.

"Most important of all was the fact that teachers took greater care to know their pupils as individuals and to become acquainted with their pupils' homes and families. Things were happening in families which powerfully influenced the conduct and attitudes of pupils, both in school and out. Teachers found that they were working in the dark unless they knew when children, newly arrived in a strange city, were living in unbearably crowded quarters; when fathers had left their homes to serve in the armed forces; when mothers had taken jobs and turned the care of younger children over to elder sisters barely in their teens; when boys and girls were free to roam the streets at nights because both their parents were employed on night shifts; and when youth were eager to leave school at the earliest possible hour in order to begin to earn money. They found that when they knew these things, they were often able to shape their teaching and the other services of the schools so as to help the individual pupil just at the time and in the way that the youngster particularly needed it.

Years of Adjustment and Growing Responsibility

"The end of the war came in 1945. That was the most momentous year any of us had ever lived through. During it, we saw the downfall of two great military conspiracies, which had sought to subjugate the entire eastern hemisphere and eventually the whole world. In 1945, we also saw the most ominous discovery man had ever made—the large-scale release of nuclear energy, and the development and use of the atomic bomb. Again, it was in that year that delegates from fifty nations—representing three-quarters of the population of the earth—met in San Francisco to frame a United Nations charter for future world peace and security. As a part of that charter, we observed the first international recognition of education as a vital force in the fashioning of a war-free world. In 1945—and, as we now know, most tragically—we heard the muted beginnings of the present ideological conflict between democratic peoples and those held in subjection to communist dictatorships. Finally, here in the United States, in 1945 occurred the death of the only man the American people had ever elected to the presidency for four terms.

"Yes, without much doubt, the events of 1945 were the most momentous, for good or ill, of any year we had ever known. The consequences of those events have shaped our lives ever since; they will continue to shape our lives for a long time to come."

Mr. Burnham waited for a few seconds, as if to allow himself and his listeners a moment of reflection, and then continued.

"In American City, as in many places throughout the country, our people had made plans for reconverting from war to peace. These plans did much to hasten the adjustments necessary to our future economic and social welfare. But some of the problems we had anticipated failed to materialize. For one thing, there was no serious unemployment.

"Although most of our men who had entered the armed forces returned to us, many of them, and especially the younger ones, did not want to re-enter their previous types of work. Some had made other plans for their vocational futures; a large number chose to take either full or part-time advantage of the educational opportunities offered by the 'G.I. Bill of Rights'—many of them as students here in our own community college.[7] In 1946, we estimated that less than one-fourth of all our returning veterans had gone back to their prewar jobs.

"A considerable proportion of the women and older men who had been working in our factories and other business establishments because of wartime need soon left this work. On the other hand, the majority of the people who had moved into American City during the war decided to remain, and continued with their jobs or found others here. Of our youth who had been working, but who under less stringent conditions would have been completing their educations, most went back to school. From the reports of their teachers, they seemed to appreciate school more than ever before.

"The speed with which our factories and war plants were converted to the production of civilian goods was truly amazing. For instance, within three months after VJ Day, our airplane parts factory was making the new type of telescoping market basket that has proved so space-saving and popular in food stores throughout the country. I could name dozens of similarly quick and successful reconversions.

"One thing that neither we nor most of the rest of the nation had sufficiently foreseen was the prolonged series of bitter strikes that occurred during the first years after the war. While there were plenty of jobs for those who really needed them, the long hours of overtime work which had characterized war production were sharply curtailed, with the threatened result of less 'take-home' pay for employees. Confronted with high prices resulting from a scarcity of goods, enormous accumulated buying power and demand, and the gradual relaxation of federal price controls, workers everywhere were determined not to allow any reduction in their dollar income. As prices continued to increase, they wanted correspondingly increased wages. During the war, most potential strikes had been averted by appeals to patriotism. Not so when the war was over. Millions of man-hours were lost to production in paralyzing strife between labor and management. Generally speaking, labor appeared to win these battles; but as wage increases were granted, the amounts of increase were automatically added to the cost of goods. The result was a 'leap-frog' sort of process between wages and prices which has produced our gravest domestic economic problem today—inflation.

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[7] See footnote 7 on page 47 and footnote 10 on page 184.

"We had our full share of labor-management difficulties here in American City. And you will certainly agree that we haven't escaped high prices and inflation. But I think you will also agree that, generally speaking, the years since World War II have been prosperous ones. Most of us are better off financially than we were before the war. Many of us have been able to buy the car, radio, television set, automatic washing machine, refrigerator, furniture, and perhaps even the new home that we had so long dreamed of. Not all of us, of course; and not all the things we've wanted. But more, probably, than we really expected.

"Now I want to speak of some of the current problems of our community, our youth, and our schools. Before I can talk of these things, however, I must say something about the present very disturbing state of national and international affairs. This is not a time when we can look forward to the improvement of our community life, unmindful of conditions and events elsewhere. Even if, selfishly, we should want to preoccupy ourselves with the concerns of American City alone, we couldn't possibly do it. Far too many of our plans would be brushed aside by the overriding necessities of national security.

"I mentioned a few moments ago that our airplane parts factory, among other things, has been making market baskets. As you probably have read, a couple of weeks ago it signed a new military contract to make fuel injectors for jet engines. Very likely, there will be no more market baskets for awhile. During the past months, much of our manufacturing potential has returned to defense production.

"The truth is that, although the better part of a decade has now passed since the end of World War II, we have not yet reached what can be called a real return to normal social or economic conditions. The world was too badly dislocated for quick readjustment. We, in this country, and we here in American City have played a dominant role in helping other nations and cities to get back on their feet. More recently, we have also had to assume the responsibility and leadership in protecting ourselves and others from a new threat to world peace. Once again, a great military conspiracy against human rights and liberty has arisen.

"No one can foresee what the next few months and years will bring. To our limitless sorrow, we have again had to require our youth to enter the armed forces, and where necessary to give their lives for the maintenance of freedom. Our country's major effort in support of the United Nations so far has been the immensely tragic and costly Korean War. Whether our limited success in this war will deter further aggression, we cannot say. Other wars may follow, either localized or on a worldwide scale. The supreme necessities which govern our present lives are, first, that we make every possible effort to stabilize unrest throughout the world, and second, that we be so well prepared to oppose armed attack from dictator-led peoples that no more free nations can be enslaved.

"Under conditions such as these which confront us now, there is an understandable tendency to adopt one of two extremes. On the one hand, we may say that there is nothing that we, personally, can do to avert calamity, and thus take an eat-drink-and-be-merry-for-tomorrow-we-may-die attitude. On the other hand, we may say that this is no time for concern with local affairs, and that planning for the future here at home should be put off until we know better what is going to happen. Both of these views of our current responsibilities are obviously negative. Worse yet, they are destructive, not only of our own welfare, but of the welfare of the nation and the world.

"If ever there was a time when American City, and all other communities in the United States, should move forward into a better kind of life, individually and collectively, it is now. The eyes of the world are upon us. From every side we are observed, criticized, and looked to for guidance. And this is no static kind of scrutiny. The hundreds of millions of people in less fortunate countries who watch us today are not so much interested in what we are, as they are in what we are doing. We assure them that they should adopt democracy, and not communism. Is it not most vitally necessary that we show them, as well as tell them, the virtues of our way of life? Need I say that there is still much room for improvement in our society?

"We haven't begun to meet the enduring needs of the great majority of our people for adequate housing, household furnishings and equipment, food, clothing, transportation, medical care, education, recreation, and cultural opportunities. As long as these needs have not been met, we had better not talk about there being nothing that we can do to avert worldwide disaster. We will do better to spend our time locating unsatisfied needs; in making people aware of them, when necessary; and in improving our economic system and our government so that more and more people may have access to the means of achieving the good life. When we do these things, we help ourselves, of course. Quite as important today, we also show the peoples of the rest of the world that democracy is truly better than communism, and that there is tangible hope of real individual freedom available to all mankind.

"We are doing some things along this line right here in American City. For example, we have a plant here for manufacturing refrigeration and air-conditioning equipment. It has doubled its payroll in five years. Why? Because it has developed moderately priced products to meet the needs for food-freezing units in homes and for air-cooling units in homes and offices. Our farm machinery factory has shown a steady climb in output and employment as more and more farmers understand the uses of machinery and have the means to buy it. And look at education. The number of teachers in the upper grades was more than doubled when we set out to meet the educational needs of our youth.

"We have plenty of other needs. We need at least 5000 units of modern low-cost housing. We need larger hospital facilities and more doctors and nurses. We need more public playgrounds and playground supervisors. We need a new terminal system, linking our transportation by air, rail, bus, and truck. Moreover, the plans to meet all these needs are well advanced and will soon be placed in operation, as necessary developments in a planned community.

Comprehensive Planning in American City

"Who does this planning for the city? I haven't told you, have I? Well, we have had a city planning commission for a long time, but its work used to be limited to such matters as zoning, parks, and traffic. What I call comprehensive planning began about two years before the end of World War II, and has grown steadily since then. It began when businessmen, labor leaders, and city officials commenced to think about the problems of economic transition from war to peace and to formulate plans for industrial conversion, for new manufacturing and commercial developments, and for maintaining employment at as high a level as possible.

"It soon became apparent that planning must include more than economic enterprises alone. One of the fields in which great expansion was expected after the war was the construction of homes. That raised the question of planning residential developments. Should the city be allowed to continue to run wild, or should plans be made to develop new residential neighborhoods equipped with adequate schools, parks, play areas, transportation facilities, and sanitary services?

"There was the problem of retraining workers and demobilized men from the armed forces. That called for cooperative planning by employers, labor leaders, school authorities, and the public employment service.

"There was the matter of public works, which might be needed to absorb the labor surplus during the transition period. That raised a series of questions as to what the city and its tributary area most needed. Was it schools, parks, playgrounds, hospitals, highways, arterial thoroughfares, bridges, terminals, or what? There were many applicants for public works projects. Should they be chosen first-come first-served? Or should the people of the city and the surrounding region, through their planning boards and committees, fashion a long-term *design for development* which should guide the selection of public works of all kinds, whether financed locally or by the federal government?

"Of course, there was also the task of planning adequate education for children and youth—your chief concern.

"In a few words, it was not long before planning had been extended to almost every area of life in this region—to goals of production and employment in industry, trade, finance, transportation, construction, and services; to studies of the labor supply, of employment trends and outlooks, of needs for training, and of distribution of consumer income; to location of industrial sites and of new residential developments; to water supply, transportation, zoning, and land use; to schools and educational services, parks, playgrounds, recreational areas, libraries, hospitals, and health services; to the elimination of substandard housing; and to the special problems of employment, housing, and public service encountered by minority groups.

"We have encountered some opposition, of course. There are a few people to whom the idea of planning is repugnant, because they think it means blueprints handed down from above and government planning for private enterprise. But planning doesn't mean that in American City. Of course, the federal and state governments have had a part in stimulating planning and in carrying it on. So also have national and state organizations of businessmen, labor, and people interested in education, housing, health, recreation, and municipal government. That was both desirable and necessary, for American City is a part of the state and the nation, and could not plan for itself alone. To be sure, our planning is coordinated through a governmental agency, the city planning commission. Some coordinating agency is essential, and the planning commission is a nonpartisan body, representing a variety of interests, with a competent professional staff under civil service. But most of the initiative and responsibility for planning lies with the committees drawn from those local organizations and agencies, both private and public, which are most concerned with the matters under consideration.

"I have spoken of city planning, but that doesn't tell the whole story. Our planning reaches down into neighborhoods and out into the surrounding region. You will find many neighborhood planning groups in the city. Some of them are successors to the old neighborhood civic associations. We are trying to have one such group for each elementary school, for the area served by an elementary school is probably the best neighborhood unit we have.* Much of the material for our citywide planning of housing, parks, recreation, traffic, and sanitation comes up to us from these neighborhood groups.

"And we do not forget that American City is the economic and cultural center of a region which extends far beyond the suburbs. You have recently been at Farmville, I understand. In many respects, Farmville is a suburb of American City—or, I should say, a part of our regional community. The forty miles to Farmville can be covered by trucks in less than an hour over the new highway. Most of the products of Farmville's acres which are not consumed locally come into the mills and markets of the city. Out from the city's factories and wholesale houses go the farm machinery, tractors, automobiles, refrigerators, radios, clothing, household furnishing, drugs, and processed foods which Farmville people buy. Farmville people read the city newspapers and tune in on the city's radio and television broadcasts. Farmville's youth attend our community college. We should indeed be narrowly provincial if we were to confine our planning to the city alone and did not open the door of full partnership to the thousands of people who live in the regional community.

"To sum it all up, we are trying to make planning democratic and keep it close to the people. We are trying to provide the means whereby the people can use intelligence and foresight to control the destinies of their own community. If we succeed, we shall have found the most promising answer yet discovered to the problem of how to maintain local initiative, decentralized responsibility, competitive private enterprise, and widespread popular participation in public affairs, in the face of the trend of the times toward centralization of political and economic power.

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* "A neighborhood should be an area within the scope and interest of a pre-adolescent child; such that daily life can have unity and significance for him, as a representation of the larger social whole. . . . Its size is determined by the convenient walking distance for children between the farthest house and the school and playground in which a major part of their activities are focused. Its pattern is determined by the need of isolating school and home from the noise of traffic and its dangers." Mumford, Lewis. *The Culture of Cities.* New York: Harcourt, Brace and Co., 1938. p. 472, 473.

"If this seems far removed from education, wait until you get into the schools. There you will find that community planning occupies a foremost place in the program of citizenship education and that students are already taking active, responsible parts in the process of planning.

"Now," said Mr. Burnham, taking up the sheaf of charts and tables which he had laid aside earlier, "you doubtless want the facts and figures. Well, here they are. 'Distribution of American City's 60,000 Workers by Main Occupational Fields,' 'Distribution of Workers by Types of Work Performed,' 'Map Showing Average Family Incomes by Blocks of Residence,' 'Map Showing Racial and National Composition of the Population by Blocks of Residence,' and several more. You may take them with you. I think you will find it more profitable to study them as you become familiar with programs of the schools. If you wish to discuss them with me later on, please feel free to come back."

HOW YOUTH EDUCATION IN AMERICAN CITY HAS CHANGED IN RECENT YEARS

Against this background of the changing city, let us look at American City's schools for youth. Again we will do well to take our information from the person best informed on the subject—in this case, George Carlisle, superintendent of the American City public schools since 1935.

"I've been wondering how I could best introduce you to our schools," Mr. Carlisle began. "It has seemed to me that I might be most helpful if I were to tell you of some of the ways in which our secondary schools of today are different from those of, say, fifteen years ago. I have jotted down ten points of difference which seem to me to be improvement.

"1. *Educational services have been enlarged, and enrolments have greatly increased.* Fifteen years ago our three public high schools enrolled about 3830 students. Today, with a population 27 percent larger, we have 60 percent more students in the high schools.[9] Fifteen years ago there was no public institution in the city for youth beyond the high school. Today, the city has a free public community college enrolling 3800 full-time students in the thirteenth and fourteenth years of school, and serving both the city and the region for fifty miles around. Fifteen years ago, our evening classes were limited to a few vocational classes in one high school. Today, the community college [10] has broad and varied offerings of free afternoon and evening classes for employed youth and adults.

"2. *Practically all our young people graduate from high school, and many continue beyond.* Fifteen years ago, there were great differences among the city's three high schools in the proportion of youth of high-school age who continued through the twelfth grade. In Lincoln High School, located in the lower-income section of the city, only sixty-three out of every hundred youth of high-school age were in school and only forty-one out of every hundred of twelfth-grade age. In Washington, a school in the section where incomes are highest, the corresponding percentages were ninety and eighty-five. For Jefferson, in a middle income area, the percentages were seventy-four and sixty-two.

"Today, throughout the city, practically all youth graduate from high school. Of course, that might be due wholly to the fact that the maximum age of compulsory school attendance has been raised to the eighteenth birthday. But I don't think that is the case. Even if the attendance law had not been changed, the percentages in school would still be high. Here is some evidence on the point. Sixty-four percent of the high-school graduates now continue their full-time education beyond high school,[11] and the differences between schools in this respect have largely disappeared.[12] Furthermore, over 40 percent of those who leave full-time school at the end of high school continue their education part time during their hours off work.

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[9] The population of American City today is 150,000, as compared with 117,500 fifteen years ago. The high-school enrolment from the city is 6108, as compared with 3830 fifteen years ago.

[10] Here, and elsewhere in this volume, the term "community college" refers to a free public educational institution, offering two years of education beyond the twelfth grade, in a variety of fields, both vocational and nonvocational. For most students, the course in the community college is "terminal," that is, it marks the end of full-time attendance at an educational institution. Some students, however, move on from the community college to professional schools or to the upper two years of liberal arts and technical colleges. The community college also conducts the program of part-time education for out-of-school youth and adults. The American City Community College will be described in some detail in Chapter 8. The system of eleven community colleges in the state of Columbia will be described in Chapter 9.

"3. *The purposes and programs of all our schools are now comprehensive, including both general and vocational education for all students.* Perhaps I shouldn't mention this, because the issue seems rather out of date. But I can remember that not much more than ten years ago the relative claims of general and vocational education were a subject of warm debate among some of our principals and teachers. The trouble was, I think, that each side tried to make it a case of either-or and didn't see that it could be both-and. And the pity was that youngsters often suffered. Many went through our college preparatory and general curriculums with scarcely a thought about the relation of education to their work in the world. And many others were kept so busy with shop practice and related training that they had little time for anything else.

"I don't think you'll find many evidences of conflict on that subject nowadays. We got rid of most of our misunderstandings when we settled down to a serious study of the educational needs of boys and girls in their teens. Then the facts compelled us to agree that youth have a number of imperative needs, and that the school should help to meet them *all*. I shan't go into the details, for you'll doubtless be looking into that study later on. But, most of us have agreed, I think, that preparation for a useful occupation should be one of the chief aims of education for all young people. We have also agreed that we should not exalt the vocational aim at the expense of such aims as civic competence and personal development. We think there is time to provide for all the important educational needs of all our youth in all our secondary schools if only we use our time wisely.

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[11] Fifty-five percent in American City Community College, 9 percent elsewhere.

[12] For the most recent graduating classes, the data follow: Washington High School, 60 percent to American City Community College, 16 percent to other colleges and universities; Jefferson High School, 54 percent to A. C. C. C., 9 percent to others; Lincoln High School, 52 percent to A. C. C. C., 5 percent to others.

"4. *All youth now have access to similar educational services, regardless of place of residence.* No student is at a disadvantage because he happens to live in a less-favored part of the city, since all the high schools now have the same purposes and comparable programs. To be sure, each high school offers training in two or three vocational fields not represented in the others. But a youth interested in one of these fields may attend the school where training is offered, no matter where he lives.

"5. *Young people may now choose from a far greater number and variety of fields of vocational education.* Ten years ago, vocational education below the professional schools was restricted to those fields for which training could be provided during the years of high school with the limited equipment which we had in those days. Metal trades, machine shop, auto mechanics, electrical trades, some of the building trades, business education, retail selling, and homemaking were the possible choices—provided there wasn't a waiting list because the shops were filled to capacity.

"Now that we have the community college, the schools can offer training in many more fields. The college gives advanced training in all the occupations taught in the high schools. It has staff and equipment which keep pace with newer industrial developments in such fields as air conditioning, refrigeration, airplane construction, air transportation, housing construction, radio and television, and the manufacture of synthetic products. It provides training for semi-professional workers beyond the range of high-school education—for architectural and mechanical draftsmen, dietitians, technicians in medical and industrial laboratories, assistants in doctors' and dentists' offices, bookkeepers, recreational leaders, and some types of civil service work. In all, it offers courses in some three dozen occupational fields of the city and the surrounding region.

"Students have a greater range of choices in high schools, too. The shop and laboratory space at each of the schools has been doubled or better; new equipment has put an end to waiting lists; and several new courses have been added.

"6. *Work experience under employment conditions is now included in the educational programs of most students at some time before they leave school.* Some students, of course, have been working their way through school ever since schools were started; but for a long time only a few schools like Tuskegee and Antioch and Berea saw that there was a close connection between work and education. It is only recently that educators generally have recognized that the experience of working may be a highly important part of education for young people in the later teens. Ten years ago, many of our students were working part time for wages. But excepting a few students in distributive occupations and diversified trade and industrial occupations, all of this work was extracurriculum.

"Today practically every student who expects to go into employment from high school or community college spends a period of time at productive work for wages while he is still enrolled in school. The schools have the cooperation of a large number of employers, both private and public. Each work experience project is selected and carried out under school supervision and is considered a part of the student's educational program. Many of the students who go on to college also ask for work experience projects. The staff does its best to find jobs for them, too, for we think that everyone who wants this experience should have it.

"7. *Citizenship education now holds a foremost place in the programs of all schools.* Long before I came to American City, there was a strong concern for citizenship education on the part of a number of teachers and principals; and ever since I've been here, I have seen that interest grow stronger and more widespread. But it has taken a long time to carry convictions into practice. Longstanding habits stood in the way. Courses in history and other social studies were dominated by the purpose of knowledge for its own sake rather than knowledge for the sake of becoming a good practicing citizen. Student participation in school affairs was limited to extracurriculum activities, usually far removed from the realities of civic life outside the schools and even from the more important affairs of the schools themselves. Civic education too often ended where it should have begun—at the bounds of the schools. Oh, there were occasional field trips and excursions to the outside world, but not much more.

"It has taken time to change these things. But our experiences of the depression, World War II, and the troubled postwar years have acted like rocket explosions to push us forward more rapidly than we might have gone otherwise. There is little doubt nowadays that almost everything else in life, in the long run, will depend on our ability to govern ourselves intelligently, as a nation, in the interests of the common good. Yes, our jobs will depend on that, and the security of our families, and our children's opportunities—possibly, even, our sons' lives. Nature never equipped a person with all the knowledge and skill and understanding that are needed by the average citizen of the United States today. Those things have to be learned, and the school is the agency chiefly responsible for teaching them.

"Our teachers have restated the aims of citizenship education to agree with the demands made on citizens today. They have refashioned programs to agree with aims. They have developed improved ways of admitting youth to participation in the planning and conduct of school and community activities. Students now have a larger share in making and carrying out policies and plans in their classes and in school affairs. Most important of all, I think, they have far more opportunities for direct participation in civic affairs at the adult level. The schools are closing the gulf which used to separate the school from the community. They are finding ways of making the community both the training ground and the proving ground for citizenship education.

"8. *The city schools now serve many young people from the surrounding region.* A few years ago, every school district was a world unto itself, with formidable tariff barriers to prevent the importing or exporting of children and youth. There were youngsters in our south-side suburbs who lived no more than two miles from Lincoln High School, yet who had to ride the bus twelve miles to school because they were in another district.

"Now we take it as a matter of course that one-third of the students in the community college come from outside the city, chiefly from the twelve high schools of the surrounding region. These schools are virtually parts of our system. The superintendents and secondary-school principals of the region meet together several times a year, and the program of the community college is planned to serve youth from the smaller communities as well as from the city.

"Our high schools are also serving suburban areas. There are only 5000 people in the south-side suburbs, and they are folks of moderate means. Most of their children now attend Lincoln High School, their district paying the cost of instruction. I expect that this area will soon be annexed to our American City district. Our northern suburbs have a large high school and a good one. But it cannot offer education in as many vocational fields as our city schools. So about one hundred fifty students from the Woodland Park district are attending one or another of the city high schools.

"9. *Guidance is now provided for all students.* Ten years ago, we talked a great deal about guidance and practiced it but little. The fault lay chiefly with us administrators, I think. We did not allow the teachers enough time to do a good job of guidance, and we did not provide the special personnel that was needed.

"Today things are different. The teachers have time; the schools have personnel. We could use more of both, of course, but we have made great advances.

"Now the schools are able to supply continuous guidance throughout the secondary period—from seventh grade through fourteenth. The main responsibility falls on the teachers. But we also have a few counselors in each school to do certain things that teachers cannot readily do, and we have a small staff of specialists in the central office to assist the teachers and counselors.

"Has the guidance service increased our costs? Yes, indeed. Quite appreciably. Guidance requires time, and time for guidance is counted as a part of the teachers' regular schedules. But have you ever thought of the cost of the lack of guidance? We have—in terms of early withdrawals, failures, and retardations—and the total is appalling. When the board of education realized the costly waste resulting from mass education without guidance, they were more disposed to be favorable to staff recommendations that guidance services should be increased.

"10. *The schools now supply continuing education and guidance for young people after they leave full-time school.* Back in depression days, people were greatly concerned about out-of-school youth and with good reason. For in those days, when a youngster left school he was through with school and the school was through with him—provided that he had passed the age of compulsory attendance. Of course, the schools had part-time and evening classes for those who wanted them. But they made little systematic effort to find out what happened to their own products.

"We don't talk much about out-of-school youth nowadays—because both our thinking and our practice on that subject have changed. The schools have been trying to get rid of the idea that a person's connection with school ends when he graduates or withdraws from a full-time course. That requires changes in the attitudes of teachers and principals, as well as of boys and girls.

"We see encouraging evidences of progress. Nowadays it is taken for granted that someone from the schools is going to try to keep in touch with every boy or girl who graduates or leaves, until each one is well started on the next step of his or her career—whether that be a job, a home, or a college course. And every youth knows, before he leaves school, that the doors of the community college are open to him whenever he wants to enrol in a course or to talk with a teacher or counselor. I told you, I think, that over 40 percent return for part-time courses.

"We have several counselors who give their time chiefly to these youth who no longer attend school full time. They look after the boys and girls who move in from other places, as well as our own city youth. Many of the youngsters, of course, do not need any help. If so, that is fine. Nothing delights the heart of an educator more than young people who are self-starters and self-directors. But some are in urgent need of help because some of life's most perplexing problems may be encountered along the road from youth into early adult life. Our job of educating youth is not finished when boys and girls graduate. It is finished only when schools have supplied whatever guidance and instruction may be needed to help young people through the critical steps of transition to adult life."

HOW CHANGES IN YOUTH EDUCATION OCCURRED

If the reader agrees that progress has been made, he will doubtless ask, as we have asked: "How were these changes brought about? By what processes did the educators and the other citizens of American City move from conventional secondary education to the greatly enlarged program of educational services which we find today? And how was it possible to speed up the processes of improvement so as to produce these changes within the short span of less than a decade?"

Indeed, the answers to these questions may well be more important than the changes. The American City educational program is not a finished model to be copied. It is the product, still in the making, of a long process of cooperative planning and action which still goes on. Other communities will have to work out their own solutions to their own educational problems. They will doubtless profit more by studying the process of change in American City than by merely observing the results of the process.

It is difficult to select a starting point for the recent changes in youth education in American City. In a sense, they are the latest stages in the process of improvement that has been going on since the first public high school was established here in 1874. After the first world war, this process was accelerated. Throughout the years between the wars, committees of educators worked to improve curriculums and to suit the programs of the schools to the diverse needs of their constantly growing student bodies. The experiences of the depression gave added impetus, as we have seen, especially to the efforts to serve older youth who go directly from the schools into employment.

The changes of the last few years, however, have been far more profound and have occurred much more rapidly than those of the preceding decades. Perhaps we may choose 1943 as a starting point, for it was then that several influences converged to intensify the concern of educators for the improvements in youth education which the times demanded.

Four Factors Which Stimulated Educational Planning

1. *Termination of the Federal Youth Agencies.* The NYA was discontinued as of July 1, 1943; the CCC, a few months earlier. Both agencies had been started during the depression, primarily to give work to youth who were out of school and unable to secure regular employment. True, both programs had other values. The CCC had added to the national wealth through various conservation projects, road building, construction of public parks, and other types of public works in which labor constitutes the major cost. The NYA had provided funds for student aid in high schools and colleges, to be earned by productive work. It had also given more and more attention to the training of needy out-of-school youth in salable skills.

One can discern at least three reasons why these agencies were terminated. Wartime demands for manpower had sharply reduced unemployment among youth. Pressure increased to reduce governmental expenditures in all nonwar activities. More and more people recognized the dangers inherent in any program for the education of youth which shifted the control of education from state and local agencies to the federal government. Educators particularly were concerned over this last point, as the NYA became increasingly an agency for education.

The closing of the federal youth agencies did not mean, however, that problems of youth education had been solved—as thoughtful educators everywhere well knew. It simply meant that, for the time being, the federal government had withdrawn from direct action in this field. It meant that the responsibility for planning and operating educational services for youth was once more wholly in the hands of state and local agencies. It meant that it was imperative for the schools so to improve their educational services for youth that never again would the federal government feel called upon to set up a youth agency under its own control to supply vocational training, work experience, and related education.

2. *The Training Program for War Production Workers.* We have already seen how the schools of American City, beginning in June 1940, were quickly engaged in the task of training workers for the rapidly growing war industries. By the summer of 1943, they had prepared some 7500 persons to go into the city's war plants and had supplied supplementary training for almost as many already employed in war production.

The immediate purpose, of course, was to train manpower for war industry. But a number of important long-term consequences flowed from the program. For one thing, more people—especially employers—came to recognize that the schools were capable of preparing workers fit to enter *at once* into employment. For another, the schools' cooperation with employers, labor, and the public employment service led to mutual understanding and the will to continue to work together in peacetime. It was demonstrated, moreover, that the nation's schools, under decentralized state and local control, could operate efficiently in meeting a national emergency need requiring coordinated action while conserving the values of local initiative and resourcefulness. At the same time, the principle was established in practice that the federal government should supply financial support for programs to meet needs which are national in character.

WAR PRODUCTION TRAINING

Throughout the nation, during the five-year period from July 1, 1940 to July 1, 1945, 6,856,000 people received vocational instruction under the War Production Training program.

The need for more widespread and more adequate vocational education was made clear, and the value of vocational education to society as well as to the individual was demonstrated with dramatic force. A large number of competent teachers in vocational fields emerged in the course of this program—many of them people who had not taught before. New equipment for industrial training, costing many millions of dollars, was added to the nation's school plant. Both teachers and plant were available for postwar use.

Let us not suppose that the educators of American City looked upon the war production training program as a model for permanent education. They were well aware of the limitations of such an emergency war measure. The program was exclusively vocational, with no provision for either civic or cultural education. The vocational training was narrowly specialized. Most men and women were trained to perform a few operations on specific jobs. There was but little guidance, little use of scientific methods of selecting personnel. Granting these shortcomings, the program nevertheless had a strong impact on education in general. It inspired public confidence in the schools; and it strengthened the faith of educators that the public schools, given intelligent planning and adequate financial support, would hereafter be able to equip all youth with the skills and knowledge needed to get and hold a job.

3. *Widespread Interest in Postwar Planning.* By the summer of 1943, it was already apparent that the end of the war would bring a host of complex problems, extending to practically every phase of American life. Intelligent foresight was called for to anticipate these problems and to plan how they could best be met. Governmental agencies—federal, state, and local—national organizations of businessmen, labor, and agriculture, and many other associations of citizens began to engage in a multitude of postwar planning activities. In many ways, the impact of this movement was felt in the schools. School people were reading the reports of planning agencies, attending conferences, and serving on local committees dealing with postwar problems. It would have been strange indeed had they not turned their attention to postwar planning in their own field of education.

The last reports issued by the National Resources Planning Board dealt comprehensively with national problems in the period following the war, and included a section on education.[13] The Bureau of Labor Statistics, the War Manpower Commission, and other agencies collaborated in estimating the employment situation and occupational trends of the postwar years.[14] Congressional groups, especially the Senate and House committees on postwar problems, likewise, addressed themselves to the task of foreseeing the major problems and preparing to deal with them.

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[13] National Resources Planning Board. *National Resources Development Report for 1943.* Part I, "Post-War Plan and Program." Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1943.

[14] National Resources Planning Board. *Demobilization and Readjustment.* Washington, D. C.: Superintendent of Documents, 1943.

National nongovernmental bodies were also active. The Committee for Economic Development was organized by businessmen to encourage and assist private enterprise throughout the country to devise ways for expanding its output and employment in order to maintain production and take up the expected slack in jobs at the end of the war. It set up regional and district organizations and local committees. A local committee became active in American City. It brought together not only employers and labor officials, but also public representatives, including the superintendent of schools and a member of the board of education. The superintendent, in turn, discussed the committee's proposals with the school staff, in order to note the implications for education. It was clear, for example, that a great deal of training and retraining would be required for the workers in local industries.

The National Planning Association had been engaged for some years in studying and recommending plans for coping with economic and social problems. Its findings were published in a series of "Planning Pamphlets." [15] As the war advanced, increasing attention was directed to the postwar period. The editors of *Fortune* magazine prepared and published a series of reports on "The United States in a New World." Teachers in the American City schools used these and similar publications in social studies and other classes and inevitably thought more about the kind of educational program for youth that would be required in the America envisioned by the postwar planners.

At the state level there was action, too. Early in 1944 the governor had appointed the state committee on postwar planning. It included key state officials and also selected representatives of industry, labor, local government, and other important interests. Education was represented on the committee and on the agenda. The state superintendent of public instruction called conferences and named committees to examine the needs for education and to make proposals for educational improvement at the state and local levels. American City school people shared in these deliberations and were stimulated further to develop their local plans.

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[15] National Planning Association, 800 21st Street, N. W., Washington, D. C.

Comparable things were happening in American City itself. Committees to consider local plans for the postwar period were set up by many of the agencies and associations in the community, such as federation of women's clubs; the League of Women Voters; the citizens' housing council; the chamber of commerce; the county federation of labor, AFL; and the county council, CIO. Some neighborhood groups, too—parent-teacher associations, civilian defense committees, and community improvement associations—began to work on plans for bettering their sections of the city. Teachers and school administrators were members of many of these planning groups. Neighborhood planning was usually centered in some school.

The mayor soon appointed a city council on postwar planning which attempted, for a time, to coordinate planning activities by means of conferences and committees. It soon became evident, however, that the volume of planning was too great to be handled by voluntary service alone. The council therefore recommended that the city planning commission be supplied with a larger staff and budget and that its functions be enlarged to include the coordination of all planning in the city and its suburbs.[16] These things were shortly accomplished.

4. *Wartime Experiences in the Schools.* Of all the influences which stimulated educational planning, the most potent were those which grew out of wartime experiences within the regular programs of the schools.

Immediately after Pearl Harbor, a meeting of principals was held to consider ways in which the schools could be geared into the expanded war effort. The schools responded promptly—particularly the secondary schools, since their pupils were near the age of military service. Plans were quickly perfected for protection against possible air raids. The physical education activities were intensified. First aid was introduced as a required unit for all twelfth-graders. Preparations were made for the preflight training that was urged by the military authorities.

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[16] As a coordinating agency, the city planning commission exercised no control over planning by private organizations and other public agencies, such as schools and libraries. These all continued to be members of the city council on postwar planning, which served as an advisory body to the city planning commission. The latter, of course, continued to perform its appropriate functions of planning as an agency of municipal government.

The superintendent of schools was one of the hundreds of school officials present at the National Institute on Education and the War held in Washington in August 1942. On his return to American City, machinery was immediately set in motion to introduce preinduction training courses and to take some of the other steps that had been recommended at the Institute. An all-day conference for principals and supervisors was used to acquaint them with the problems and suggestions presented at the Institute and to invite them to think about the adjustments which the schools could and should make on behalf of the total war effort. Following this conference, each principal met several times with the teachers in his building, for similar purposes. Indeed, in many schools, the educational implications of the war became the major theme of teachers' meetings.

Some changes in education followed rather quickly. Most evident, of course, was the emphasis in secondary schools on learning experiences that prepared directly for service in the war—physical fitness programs for all, preinduction courses for boys, and training of both boys and girls for work in war industry.

More and more teachers learned to work in groups which cut across conventional divisions of subjectmatter and administrative units. More and more teachers learned to deal with problems in terms of the entire school, the neighborhood, or the city. More and more teachers learned to think in terms of the entire range of needs of children and communities. More and more teachers learned to work with groups of parents, youth, and other citizens representing cross sections of neighborhoods and areas of the city. Best of all, more and more teachers became deeply concerned for the individual boys and girls in their classes and earnestly sought to know their pupils better and to help them meet the impact of the war on their lives.

As the school year of 1942-43 moved on, teachers, principals, and the superintendent began to think increasingly of what would happen in education after the war ended. They felt that reasonable progress was being made in "gearing the schools to the war effort," the common phrase at that period. They knew full well that the schools had not been ready for the war; they feared that the schools might not be ready for the peace. The superintendent's staff, the principals, several of the school faculties, the teachers' association, and other groups such as the social studies club and the association of vocational teachers gave more and more time and thought to the problems of postwar planning for education. It was soon apparent that a unified and concerted attack on the matter was essential if the entire system was to benefit fully from the thinking of these various groups.

The Board of Education Authorized Educational Planning and Supplied Funds

Mr. Carlisle, the superintendent, who had followed these movements with far greater care than we have been able to sketch them, believed that the time had come to lay the matter of long-term educational planning before the board of education. He therefore proposed that (a) the board go on record as recognizing its most pressing concern to be the development of a comprehensive plan for a system of public education that would meet the needs of all children and youth; (b) the superintendent be authorized to set up an official commission on American City education made up of personnel in the school system, and a citizens' advisory council on education made up of laymen representing various community interests; (c) the teaching and administrative staff in each school be urged to share fully in the planning, and that provision be made for full consideration of their suggestions; and (d) funds be set aside continuously for a period of years, up to 2 percent of the school operating budget, for financing the additional research, cooperative planning, and public relations necessary "if a really effective program is to result that the teachers can conduct and the public will endorse and support."

These proposals aroused the interest of the board as nothing had done in years. They became the chief item of business at a series of board meetings. Representatives of interested community agencies and organizations appeared before the board and endorsed the proposals. So did leaders of teachers' organizations. In due time, the board gave its unanimous approval. It expressed a desire to meet with the new commission on American City education as soon as the commission's work was under way. One member suggested an all-day session of the two groups, to allow time for discussion and deliberation. This proposal was received with favor, and the superintendent was authorized to arrange for this and other joint meetings "at least twice in each calendar year, and at such other times as may be deemed advisable." Moreover, the board voted to make progress in planning future education an item on the agenda of all its regular meetings.

The Commission on American City Education

The superintendent proceeded at once to appoint the Commission on American City Education. This body was made responsible for "developing and recommending to the superintendent, and through him to the board of education, such educational policies, plans, and programs for the public schools of American City, as it deems desirable for the best interests of children and youth in this community." The commission's primary function was to be policy formulation. But it was also to have direction of the research, teacher education, and public interpretation attendant upon policy-making. One of the most capable men in the school system, the assistant principal of Jefferson High School, was released from his duties and assigned full time to this project as executive secretary for the commission.[17] The commission was made up initially of a principal and a teacher from senior high schools, a principal and a teacher from junior high schools, two elementary-school principals, two elementary-school teachers, the director of instruction and curriculum, the supervisor of vocational education, the director of research, and the executive secretary—twelve in all. The principals and teachers were chosen primarily on the basis of their general competence and their interest in planning, secondarily to insure as wide representation as possible of subject fields and other special interests.

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[17] The time required for the work of the commission and of its four major committees soon increased to the point where it was necessary for the schools to release the members from a part of their teaching and administrative duties. The money for planning voted by the board of education made it possible to provide substitutes at such times.

Both the superintendent and the board of education were eager to have the new plans founded on a broad base of participation, not only by educators, but by parents, youth, and other citizens as well. However, instead of setting up elaborate machinery at the beginning, they authorized the new commission to propose ways of involving a larger number of school personnel in the planning, and to develop methods for working effectively with the citizens' advisory council, the city planning commission, the parent-teacher associations, employer and labor organizations, and the like.

The Citizens' Advisory Council on Education

After organizing the Commission on American City Education and seeing it well started, the superintendent of schools proceeded to appoint the Citizens' Advisory Council on Education. This was a relatively large body, necessarily so in order to represent the numerous interests in the community that had a stake in the public schools. The members so chosen understood that they would serve on the advisory council as individuals and *not* as *official* representatives of any groups. Nevertheless, as a means of assuring that a variety of interests and points of view would be included in the council's membership, officers of more than thirty civic organizations were invited to nominate members. Actual selection was made by the superintendent after consultation with the board of education and the Commission on American City Education.[18]

The functions proposed for the Citizens' Advisory Council on education were (a) to assemble and present evidence of the needs in the community—especially among children and youth—that should be met by an improved educational program in the schools; (b) to review critically the reports of studies and the recommendations prepared by the Commission on American City Education and to suggest improvements; and (c) to keep their agencies and organizations informed as to the development of educational plans and programs. In order to carry out these functions, the council agreed to have regular meetings six times a year and to hold such special meetings as might be required.

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[18] See: American Association of School Administrators. *Lay Advisory Committees.* Washington, D. C.: the Association, 1951. Also: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Citizens and Educational Policies.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1951.

The Citizens' Advisory Council elected its own chairman, and the chairman was made a member of the Commission on American City Education, thus providing a continuous liaison between these two major planning bodies.

Other lay organizations in American City soon learned that their interest in school affairs could profitably be communicated to the new advisory council. Some of them submitted recommendations and questions for study to the council. Others invited council leaders to speak at their meetings. Especially cooperative in such ways were the American City Council of Parent-Teacher Associations and its local units. The PTA groups sponsored neighborhood clinics for

> One of the characteristics of successful citizen committees is their ability to coordinate the efforts of many different individuals and groups which are working for better schools. There are two other characteristics which the Commission has found to be common denominators of those citizen committees which have made real contributions toward bettering their schools. These are:
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> 1. A membership which reflects the experience of all parts of the community—business, labor, agriculture, the professions, different religious faiths, and both political parties.
>
> 2. A desire to help find answers to the fundamental questions of what, in the last analysis, the schools are supposed to do and how they can be enabled to do it, rather than a disproportionate interest in any one aspect of education.—HENRY TOY, executive director, National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, in *The School Executive,* February 1950. p. 14.

educational planning and also helped to recruit other citizens to attend meetings called by the advisory council.

HOW THE COMMISSION ON AMERICAN CITY EDUCATION WENT TO WORK

As we turn now to follow the work of the Commission on American City Education for a time, let us remember that the commission did not work alone. It constantly drew large numbers of teachers into the processes of planning and experimenting. It frequently referred its findings and recommendations to the Citizens' Advisory Council on Education for review and criticism. And from time to time it submitted reports to the superintendent of schools and the board of education for criticism and adoption.

Taking Stock of the Schools

As one of its first acts, the commission made a quick analysis of the situation within the schools and of the relations between the schools and the community, in order to estimate its limitations and resources. What were the chief obstacles to improvement of education in the schools? In the community? How could these best be overcome? And what were the chief resources in schools and community? How could these best be utilized? Is it possible, the commission asked, for a large city-school system to make far-reaching changes in its program and act both intelligently and rapidly? If so, what conditions are favorable to such action?

The commission's first findings were sobering to those who had expected that change would come suddenly and with little effort, when once the need had been made clear.

1. *The Teachers.* First, about the teachers. Their average (median) age was forty-three. Sixty percent had been teaching in the American City schools for ten years or more. In the senior high schools, at least, they were primarily people who had specialized in particular subjectmatter areas in college. They were organized into departments, each of which had considerable power and the disposition to "fight for its subject." Most teachers took pride in teaching their own subjects well. Until World War II there had been

little crossing of departmental lines, little cooperative planning in terms of individual needs. Indeed, in prewar days the feeling was prevalent that the individual teacher did not count for much in the determination of policies, either in the individual school or in the school system as a whole. Only through their teacher associations were teachers powerful; and their collective efforts in these organizations had recently been directed to matters of teacher welfare more than to basic improvements in education.

There were hopeful features, however. Most of the teachers were proud of their school system and loyal to it. They liked to think of it as an improving system, one which moved forward with the times. Many of them attended summer schools and summer workshops and returned with new ideas about the improvement of their work as individual teachers or principals. They were ready to accept and even to initiate minor changes within the established educational framework. It was doubtful, however, that they were yet convinced that *major* changes were needed and that they would have to be made *quickly*.

Nevertheless, as we have just seen, the events of recent years had left their marks on patterns of thought and action. The charge often heard in the depression years, that "the high schools have failed in their duties to millions of boys and girls," was extremely disturbing to many conscientious teachers, who saw that charge supported by the flow of youth into the CCC and the NYA. And the experiences of wartime had shaken many a teacher out of his accustomed routine of subject teaching, thrown him into all-school and all-neighborhood activities, and made him far more sensitive to educational problems and needs. A spirit of expectation of change was abroad, and was growing—but as yet it lacked a clear sense of direction.

2. *Public Relations.* Public relations were good, but in a negative way. There was relatively little criticism of the schools by parents and citizens. Those who dropped out of school along the way left quietly, without protest. Local financial support compared favorably with that in similar cities elsewhere. The board of education was composed, on the whole, of able, respected people; and the last "big fight" over a board election had occurred so long ago that only

a few people remembered it. There were parent-teacher associations in every school, some large and active, some small and ineffective—depending largely on who the officers happened to be and on the amount of time and thought which the principal and the school staff were disposed to give to PTA affairs. Care was taken to interpret the schools to the community through published annual reports, newspaper publicity, occasional "open houses" in the schools, radio programs, and the like. Little provision had been made, however, to bring either parents or any other lay groups into the process of policy-making or planning. Practically no machinery existed for two-way communication between members of the school staffs and the great body of citizens in whose hands, in the last analysis, rest the decisions regarding educational policy.

Here again, however, as we have seen, things were changing. World War II brought problems on which parents had to be consulted; and from these it was easy and natural to move on to other questions of school policy. People in neighborhoods began to come together more often to work on one wartime task or another, often meeting at the school; and teachers frequently were members of such groups. When these groups came, as they often did, to talk about what they wanted their neighborhoods to be in the years ahead, it was natural that they should talk about schools and education. Yes, there was a new spirit of public relations in the air, a new-born spirit, sorely in need of nourishment and direction—but alive and growing.

3. *Procedures.* Finally, the commission looked at the machinery of the school system and found it highly standardized. General rules and regulations had been developed to cover most contingencies. They worked, but they worked slowly. They did not encourage originality and boldness in meeting problems. Supplies were standardized, and new types of materials had to run a long gantlet before they could be secured. The procedure for adopting new texts, supplementary books, and library books took so long that usually a book could not be bought until at least two years after it had been published. Student trips during school hours were far too few because of the "red tape" necessary in making the arrangements.

Administrative units were sharply separated from each other. Schedules of classes in high schools were set up months in advance, and changes were looked upon with disfavor.

All this meant, of course, that the commission would have to give attention to the obstacle of "red tape." This was a problem primarily for the board of education and for the superintendent and his staff, and the commission was assured of their cooperation.

Studying Conditions That Lead to Constructive Change

Having taken stock of these matters, the commission next asked the questions: What are the conditions under which improvements in educational systems take place? What can we learn from experiences elsewhere that will help us to bring about change on the scale and with the speed that will likely be needed in these times?

Of course, there was the obvious answer. Some changes occur as results of direct orders from superior authority. One could point to the past for evidence. The state legislature had enacted a law requiring the teaching of civics in every high school; the local board of education had directed that high-school graduation requirements should include a course in economics; the council of principals, with the approval of the superintendent, had directed that a unit in traffic-safety education be included in the eleventh grade; a department head had directed that the study of *The Merchant of Venice* be discontinued. And all these things had been done.

But now the situation was different. Here were questions far more complex and basic than whether one more course should be taught here or one less unit there. Here was the problem of re-examining the entire program of the schools in the light of the needs of children and youth and of American society. No individual or board would be wise enough to write the final answer to this problem and to issue edicts that it be carried into effect. And even if the superior authority could do these things, it would accomplish little by doing so. For what was needed was far more than changes in courses and techniques. Changes were needed in the attitudes and practices of teachers and school administrators—changes in their ways of thinking about the purposes of education, about pupils and their needs, about the relations of schools to the community and the nation. Comparable changes were needed on the part of parents and the lay public. Such changes, it was clear, could not be brought about by orders. The problem, at heart, was one of educating teachers and administrators in service.

Some time before, the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education began to publish the reports of its four-year cooperative study. Among other things, the staff of that Commission had shared in and observed the programs of in-service education of teachers in twenty-six cooperating school systems. One of the volumes of the Commission's report, *Teacher Education in Service*, included a chapter entitled, "Lessons from the Cooperative Study of Teacher Education." This analysis proved particularly helpful to the group in American City, for it dealt with precisely the problem which then confronted them, and it was based on experience in a number of school systems. It was first studied by the Commission on American City Education and then was circulated widely among the teachers and administrators of the system. So far-reaching was its influence that we quote significant sections: [20]

> In summary, we believe that the experience with the schools in the cooperative study has demonstrated that, given proper conditions, teachers will readily join together in an effort to do better what they conceive to be their jobs; that, when people go to work on jobs that to them seem important, personal growth and program improvement become closely related; that, given proper conditions, the teachers' conceptions of their jobs will broaden and also come to relate more closely to the needs of contemporary society.

The report then turned to consideration of the meaning of "proper conditions," and continued:

> CONDITIONS FAVORABLE TO VOLUNTARY ENLISTMENT
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> A first and basic condition for enlistment and keeping the members of a staff at work is that the jobs on which they work should truly seem to

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[20] Prall, C. E., and Cushman, C. L. *Teacher Education in Service*. Washington, D. C.: Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, 1944. p. 436-54.

> them to be their jobs, tasks whose accomplishment seems both appropriate and important. . . .
>
> A second condition is that individuals should work on jobs where they can make a positive contribution. . . .
>
> A third condition that has seemed to contribute to individual enlistment and continuous work on program improvement is that a high degree of flexibility should be maintained with reference to all group activity and all related individual activity. . . .
>
> A fourth condition that has many times been demonstrated to be of major importance is that people should work as friends and equals; equals in the sense of assurance of mutual acceptance without regard to title or position. . . .
>
> A fifth condition basic to keeping the school personnel at work on program improvement is that the means for converting thought into action should be such as to permit a reasonably easy and continuous flow.

However, the report continued:

> . . . We cannot afford to let the matter rest here; it is *not* enough to be merely active in program improvement. . . . Activity in itself . . . would not necessarily lead rapidly, if indeed it would ultimately, to positive changes in keeping with current needs.
>
> . . . Efforts to align activities of in-service education with some concept of the ideal school which has not been accepted by the teachers, or with some comprehensive pattern which goes beyond the teachers' sense of need, cannot be expected to succeed. . . .

The question was therefore raised: What are the proper conditions under which the teachers' conception of their jobs will broaden and come to relate more closely to the needs of contemporary society?

The answer was given:

> CONDITIONS CONDUCIVE TO WORKING ON SIGNIFICANT TASKS
>
> A first condition for insuring the attention of a school personnel to undertaking jobs of social significance is that a rich association should be maintained between the professional personnel and the youth and adults of the school community. . . .
>
> A second condition for insuring the attention of a school personnel to jobs of social significance is that the personnel should have a rich association with important social ideas and ideals.

Acknowledging its debt to the Commission on Teacher Education and to other searchers for the conditions favorable to educational improvement,[21] the Commission on American City Education proceeded to work out its own solutions, as we shall see presently.

Settling Some Questions of Procedure and Policy

1. *How To Move from Planning to Action.* The commission made some important decisions at its early meetings. Two alternatives as to procedure were considered. One was to formulate a comprehensive plan for education in American City's schools, and then to conduct an aggressive campaign to "sell" the plan to the board of education, the teachers, and the public, with a view to adoption of the plan in its entirety.

The other, more difficult to state precisely, would likewise begin with an inclusive plan, based on a careful study of educational needs. This plan, however, would be thought of as tentative, subject to continuous revision and improvement. Teachers and lay citizens would be invited to review it and propose ways of making it better. Groups of teachers and entire schools would be encouraged to experiment within the framework of the plan. The results of experiments would be reported and appraised. Whenever any portion of the proposed program seemed worthy of general acceptance, it would be carried into practice as rapidly as possible.

The commission accepted the second alternative. Thus it was possible to go forward with parts of the projected program, without waiting for acceptance of the whole. And thus the comprehensive plan was kept sufficiently flexible to allow it to be improved in the light of experience as an operating policy.

2. *Plans Should Outreach Current Practices.* Moreover, the commission early decided that it would not immure its thinking within the existing educational structure and program, but would rather seek to envision the best possible structure and program for the

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[21] For example, Paul R. Mort and Francis G. Cornell, whose book, *American Schools in Transition,* was studied by the Commission. (New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1941, 456 p.) In more recent study, the Commission has also found the following book valuable: American Association of School Administrators. *The Expanding Role of Education,* Twenty-Sixth Yearbook. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association.

future. It would not limit its outlook to the clientele then enrolled in the school system but would try to devise ways to take care of the children and youth who were not being served by the schools, but who had a just claim on public educational services—notably children under five and the many out-of-school youth from fifteen to twenty-one. It would not restrict its planning to what might be accomplished within the limits of the funds then available for education but would portray the educational program which American City needed and then try to find ways to finance the program. In short, the commission assumed that the claim of education on public funds was second only to that of national defense and sought to formulate a plan by which the schools of American City might render all the educational services needed by all the children and youth of the city. It followed the example of military authorities in wartime who stated what was required to insure victory and assumed that the nation would provide the funds.

3. *Achieving a Balance between Centralization and Decentralization.* Still another problem was that of finding the right balance and working relationship between centralized and decentralized planning.

On the one hand, it seemed clear that sound planning required considerable decentralization. The commission's twelve members knew that they alone could not develop an adequate and workable plan. They would need to mobilize and use the best thinking of the entire professional staff, parents, youth, and leaders in community agencies. They were convinced that they would have to rely on teachers—working close to children, youth, and parents in their schools and neighborhoods—for much of the materials required for a picture of educational needs. They believed that groups of teachers, dealing with problems which they could reach out and touch in their own schools and neighborhoods, would be one of the most fertile sources of constructive ideas about educational services. They wanted to develop a plan which would be flexible, adaptable to the varying needs of neighborhoods—one which would stimulate rather than suppress the initiative and resourcefulness of school faculties. Moreover, since the teachers eventually would have to operate the plan, it seemed only common sense to conclude that they could operate it better if they understood and approved it because they had helped to make it.

Out of considerations like these came a decision to invite every school in the system to become a unit in the citywide planning. The faculty of each school was to choose the problems which seemed to it most important in terms of its own pupils and neighborhood. The commission arranged to meet periodically with representatives of all schools, not simply to hear reports of these individual school projects, but to put these local studies and experiments together and see what larger picture might be emerging. Each school faculty could go about its planning as seemed best to it, but it might call on the commission staff and the research division for a reasonable amount of assistance.[22]

On the other hand, there were at least two good reasons why some phases of planning should be centralized. Many of the conditions which bulked large in educational planning were conditions of the city or the region, not of neighborhoods alone. Employment was cited as an example. Most of the people of American City were not employed in the neighborhoods in which they lived, and only a few people lived in the industrial and business section of the city where most of the people were employed. Employers' organizations and labor unions were citywide rather than neighborhood groups. Employment, occupational trends, and the planning of vocational education all had to be approached largely, though not exclusively, through centralized planning. So also with some aspects of government, public health, and recreation—though in these fields the citywide and neighborhood conditions were more evenly balanced.

This balance of decentralized and centralized planning proved quite satisfactory. The faculty in each school, working with parents, students, and neighborhood agencies, selected the problems that seemed most important to it and concentrated its work on these. The Commission on American City Education, with the aid of various committees and with the advice of the Citizens' Advisory Council, brought together the work of the individual school staffs and formulated over-all plans and policies. These statements, in turn, were reviewed by school faculties and committees of various teachers' and principals' organizations before they were submitted to the superintendent of schools and the board of education.

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[22] The reader is reminded that the board of education has appropriated a sum equal to 2 percent of the schools' operating budget to cover additional costs involved in planning.

4. *The Use of Citywide Committees.* Citywide committees were needed to assist the Commission on American City Education, but it was not clear at first how they should be organized. After considering the possibilities of standing committees by subject fields and standing committees by age-groups of children, the commission decided to have no permanent committees. Instead, it decided to appoint a temporary committee whenever a problem calling for special study might arise, choosing people well qualified to deal with that particular problem. Under this policy, committees were soon at work studying such problems as the educational needs of children under six years of age; employment trends and opportunities in American City; the out-of-school youth in the city and its environs; the needs for public education beyond the twelfth grade; the essentials of an adequate program of vocational education; and plans for guidance in secondary schools. Whenever a committee completed its work, it was honorably discharged; and other committees were appointed as new problems required attention. Thus a sizable proportion of the schools' staffs participated in the planning through committee service.

Some Early Experiments

Under these policies, school faculties and individual teachers were encouraged to go ahead at once with experiments looking toward better education. Practically every school set up its own committee on education, and the records of these committees show that the new spirit of planning and experimentation quickly pervaded each school, and gave rise to a multitude of enterprises. A report of what happened during the first year would fill a separate volume, but it will be instructive for us to look briefly at a few of these experiments in the secondary schools and see how they became ma terials out of which the inclusive program later was fashioned. Any single experience, taken by itself, may not seem to be of great significance. But when we remember that these educational ventures were multiplied by dozens, yes, by hundreds, we begin to see their importance. There is the story of the development of a unit on industrial and labor relations:

The social studies teachers at Lincoln High School noted the large number of boys and girls leaving the school to work in factories. They talked with some of them after they had been at work for a few weeks or months and became convinced that the schools were giving these young workers practically no understanding of labor unions, collective bargaining, social security, and the many other nontechnical matters connected with holding a job. Some of these teachers worked in factories during the summer and learned everything they could from the point of view of beginning workers. At the end of the summer, they talked with their employers, seeking a fair understanding of their point of view. Then, in cooperation with vocational teachers and with help from some recently published materials in the field, they worked out units on industrial and labor relations which included old age and unemployment insurance, wages and hours laws, workmen's compensation, safety provisions, and government mediation and arbitration, as well as labor unions and employer-employee relations. Students were helped to understand federal and state regulation of child labor, the work permit system, and other aspects of labor regulation that would affect them personally when they first went into paid employment. The units were tried out at Lincoln, revised, and continued. Teachers at Jefferson and Washington heard about them through the channels set up to share such information and decided to try something comparable in their schools. These teachers said that it was quite as important for boys and girls who were headed for management and the professions to understand these matters as for those going into factories and stores. Indeed, they added, government was now playing such a large part in labor relations that every citizen ought to have an understanding of the fundamentals of the subject. All this led in turn to the inclusion of industrial and labor relations as one of the areas later included in the new course on "Common Learnings."

There is also the story of the three teachers at Jefferson High School who agreed to join in an effort to promote pupil growth in family living through their respective fields—English, social studies, and home economics:

Arrangements were made for these teachers to have the same pupils, though in separate classes. They worked out their objectives together and planned their three courses so that there were certain periods during the year in which all three converged on family living. During these periods, the teachers met almost daily, sharing experiences and planning their work so that all were working together to meet the same student needs. The home economics teacher undertook to estimate the effects of this type ot teaching on the conduct of children in families by means of students' diaries and interviews with parents. Her report, based on forty students paired with forty following conventional courses in the three subjects, strongly favored the cooperative approach. This experiment also became known, and here and there other groups of teachers followed similar plans. Particularly numerous were the cases of teachers of history and teachers of literature working together. These experiments were among the markers which pointed the way to the course in "Common Learnings."

Here, more briefly, are some other examples:

A group of teachers of mathematics and vocational subjects in Jefferson High School, together with teachers from two junior high schools, undertook to ascertain the specific mathematical knowledge and skills actually employed (a) by young people who entered industrial and commercial occupations directly from high school, and (b) by young men in the various military and naval services. Stimulated by the above examples, a group of teachers of chemistry and physics undertook a comparable study for their subjects. They added life in the home as a third type of post-school activity.

Fifteen white teachers from several schools made field trips, read, and held discussions, in order to better their own understanding of the Negro people of American City. Later they invited three Negro teachers to join them and spent several months in planning projects and units on intercultural education which they then used in their classes.

Teachers at Washington High School experimented successfully with a unit on the reading of newspapers and magazines with a follow-up study of effects on students' reading habits. The American people, they said, read newspapers and periodicals more than any other form of literature; therefore they should be trained to read them with discrimination.

Teachers from Jefferson High School, two junior high schools, and four elementary schools, all in the same area of the city, worked together on studies of sequences and continuity of learnings by pupils attending these schools and of problems of transitions from each level to the next higher. From this beginning, the group moved to a study of this part of the city in order more accurately to define the needs of children and youth who lived there.

Teachers of home economics from all three schools developed an intensive twelfth-grade course on homemaking, family life, and consumer economics for girls who expected to go to work after high school and who had not taken other courses in home economics. Practically all women, said the teachers, will be homemakers, and the schools should make it possible for all girls to secure training in homemaking.

A class in social studies at Lincoln High School made a sampling study of opportunities and conditions of work in personal service occupations in American City—because, it was frequently said, this was a field in which employment opportunities for young people would be increased as time went on.

A brief orientation unit for tenth-graders was developed at Lincoln High School and adopted, with modifications, elsewhere.

Numerous experiments were made in teaching students of superior ability, especially in the sciences and mathematics.

Of the many experiments and projects undertaken during these months, a few were successful from the start and soon were widely accepted; more were successful only in part and had to be revised and tried over and over again; and some were outright failures, or seemed so at the time. Far more important than these enterprises, however, is what happened to the teachers who carried them on. The very fact that the teachers were free to depart from conventional practices quickened their imaginations and aroused their interests. Now they began to feel that they were genuine participants, both in planning a better education and in bringing it into existence. Their attention moved away from themselves, their subjects, and their schools, outward to their pupils and their communities.

Studying Educational Needs

Once under way, the Commission on American City Education turned to a study of the educational needs of children and youth, for it was agreed that a clear picture of needs was basic to program development. The commission approached this subject from two sides. It examined organized society, both locally and nationally; and it studied the day-to-day lives of boys and girls of various ages. Both approaches were found fruitful.

Many published studies of the local community were reviewed, such as the 1941 report of the council of social agencies on *Youth in American City*. Reports of national research and planning bodies were studied, particularly the findings and recommendations of such groups as the American Youth Commission, the White House Conference, and the Educational Policies Commission. Most important of all were the firsthand investigations made by the research division of the public schools and by teachers released from their regular duties to serve on committees. In the next chapter [23] we shall quote at length from a report issued in the spring of 1944 by a committee which studied the occupational situation in American City and its implications for education. Comparable studies were made and reports prepared on such subjects as health and physical fitness among children and youth; family conditions in the city; recreational needs and opportunities; and schools as neighborhood centers.

"Imperative Educational Needs of Youth" [24]

In the spring of 1944, the commission issued its first statement on educational needs. There is not space to reproduce the entire statement, but the summary of ten "imperative educational needs of youth" carries the heart of the document and is particularly important because it was used as the basis for much of the program planning in secondary schools. (See page 217.)

Such a statement would have availed but little, however, had not the commission followed it shortly with its proposals for a program

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[23] See pages 268-71.

[24] See: "The Imperative Needs of Youth of Secondary School Age," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Vol. 31, No. 145, March 1947. See also: *Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth*. Washington, D. C.: U.S. Office of Education, Federal Security Agency, 1948.

IMPERATIVE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF YOUTH

1. All youth need to develop salable skills and those understandings and attitudes that make the worker an intelligent and productive participant in economic life. To this end, most youth need supervised work experience as well as education in the skills and knowledge of their occupations.

2. All youth need to develop and maintain good health and physical fitness.

3. All youth need to understand the rights and duties of the citizen of a democratic society, and to be diligent and competent in the performance of their obligations as members of the community and citizens of the state and nation.

4. All youth need to understand the significance of the family for the individual and society and the conditions conducive to successful family life.

5. All youth need to know how to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, understanding both the values received by the consumer and the economic consequences of their acts.

6. All youth need to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man.

7. All youth need opportunities to develop their capacities to appreciate beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.

8. All youth need to be able to use their leisure time well and to budget it wisely, balancing activities that yield satisfactions to the individual with those that are socially useful.

9. All youth need to develop respect for other persons, to grow in their insight into ethical values and principles, and to be able to live and work cooperatively with others.[25]

10. All youth need to grow in their ability to think rationally, to express their thoughts clearly, and to read and listen with understanding.[26]

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[25] See: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Moral and Spiritual Values in the Public Schools.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1951.

[26] See also the statements on "How Youth Differ" and "What Youth Have in Common," on pages 26-30.

of action. These proposals were widely publicized in seven paragraphs which read as follows:

Raise the end of the period of compulsory education to the eighteenth birthday (or high-school graduation, whichever occurs earlier), in order that all may have the benefits of at least twelve years of education. The educational needs of youth and the responsibilities placed on schools are now so many, so varied, and so complex that the minimum time for school education must be increased. Work to secure the required state legislation.

Make all three American City high schools comprehensive in purposes and programs so that all youth in the city may have access to equal educational opportunities, regardless of place of residence. We do not say, however, that all high-school programs should be identical. Some specialization, particularly in vocational fields, is clearly advisable. Action by the board of education is required.

Establish a free institution of public education above the high school in order to enable those American City youth, who wish to do so, to prepare for occupations that require one or two years of training beyond high school and to continue their general education at the same time. Studies of American City youth show that only 20 percent of those who graduate from high school go on to college. At least an additional 30 percent of the high-school graduates, however, state that they would continue full-time education beyond high school if opportunities were available locally for one or two years of vocational education in technical and semiprofessional fields combined with continuing civic and cultural education. Moreover, around 40 percent of those who end their full-time education at high-school graduation or earlier say that they would be interested in continuing their education in part-time classes. This requires action by the state legislature, the state department of education, the board of education, and the voters of the district. But certain steps can be taken at once. The board of education can provisionally authorize the institution. The broad features of the initial curriculum can be tentatively planned. Preliminary plans and estimates of costs of buildings and equipment can be drawn up. Work can be started for desired state legislation.

Develop a curriculum for Grades VII through XIV which will provide for all youth the experiences through which they can best grow in all the ways indicated in the statement of "imperative educational needs of youth." This curriculum should be planned as a whole, to cover the entire period of youth, from Grades VII through XIV. Whatever the administrative organization of the schools may be, it is essential that there be continuity of program throughout these eight years. This requires the cooperative action of all teachers and administrators concerned with secondary education aided by groups of interested parents and other citizens.

Begin at once to develop an adequate system of guidance continuous throughout both elementary and secondary years. Allow adequate time for guidance on teachers' schedules and provide such specialists as may be needed. This requires action by the board of education and cooperative planning and action throughout the staffs of the schools.

Plan to secure the additional funds which will be needed (a) to expand the high-school plant as needed to accommodate additional students; (b) to furnish additional types of educational service such as expanded vocational education and more adequate guidance; (c) to meet the city's share of the cost of building the proposed new community college; (d) to finance the annual operating costs of providing education to some 2000 additional high-school students and the students who will enrol in the community college; and (e) to provide financial aid to individual students who need to earn money for personal expenses. Funds will have to come from local, state, and federal sources. Begin at once a public relations program for increasing local funds. Support—if necessary, initiate—a campaign for state funds; and support the national effort to secure federal aid without federal control.

Invite the boards of education of the high-school districts in the region surrounding American City to join with this commission in planning an educational program to serve the youth of the region as well as the city, and particularly to share in the development of the American City Community College which should be a regional institution. Call in the state department of education at once to assist in this cooperative planning.

The time for citywide action had come. The superintendent of schools and his staff and the board of education took up these generally accepted statements of educational needs and proposals for action and pressed vigorously forward, calling on the Commission on American City Education, the Citizens' Advisory Council, and the associated groups of teachers and parents to continue to help as further planning was needed. As we report what followed, we must condense into a few pages the deliberations and actions of many people extending over many months.

A Continuous Educational Program Throughout the Period of Youth

Still other questions had to be answered. There was the problem of how youth education should be organized. Had American City been building its program *de novo*, it is possible that a 6-4-4 type of organization would have been adopted—elementary schools through Grade VI,[27] lower secondary schools for Grades VII through X, and upper secondary schools for Grades XI through XIV.

American City, however, already had its three large high schools and six junior high schools, each with a faculty now deeply involved in the process of educational reconstruction, each with a relatively modern building, each with assets in the form of community cooperation and goodwill. It did not seem advisable to alter the structure of the school system if the desired ends could be attained otherwise.

What was essential—and practically everyone agreed on this—was that the educational program for the entire period of youth be planned and operated as a whole. From Grade VII through Grade XIV, the curriculum should have continuity from year to year and significant relationships among its constituent parts within each year.[28] A 4-4 secondary-school system might be better suited to such a program. But a 3-3-2 system, it was believed, could be adapted to these ends, provided that those in charge of curriculum development always kept educational needs and purposes foremost in their thinking. It was decided to think of the junior high school as the lower secondary school, of the senior high school as the middle secondary school, and of the new community college as the advanced secondary school, and to plan the curriculum for all three levels as a continuous whole.[29]

"Differential" and "Common" Studies

There was also the question of differentiation of courses in the secondary schools. At what times and in what ways, it was asked, do the interests and educational needs of maturing youth tend to diverge widely enough so that parts of the curriculum should be correspondingly differentiated? And in what respects do the educational needs of youth continue to be common to all and best served through a curriculum followed by all students?

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[27] The elementary school, however, would have been extended downward for at least two years below the conventional first grade. See: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Educational Services for Younger Children.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1945.

[28] The same point of view was taken with respect to the program of the elementary schools; and a great deal of attention was given to articulation of elementary and secondary curriculums, and to pupil transition from elementary to secondary schools. See: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Education for ALL American Children.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1948.

[29] See the chart of the "American City System of Public Education" on page 231.

The answer was substantially the same as that given at Farmville. Throughout the junior high-school period, it was agreed, the educational needs of pupils are sufficiently alike to justify a common curriculum for all pupils with ample provision for differentiated treatment of pupils within classes to take account of diversities of interests, aptitudes, and abilities.[30]

Beginning in the tenth grade, or thereabouts, young people exhibit differences in certain of their interests and plans which call for a variety of offerings in the curriculum, among which the students, under guidance, may choose.

Differences in occupational interests and plans are the most significant for education. Young people in their later teens have a natural and wholly commendable desire to prepare themselves to become self-supporting and perform useful work in the world. But occupations are many and diverse, and so also are the roads which lead to them. Whatever the roads may be, the schools, from the tenth grade onward, must give every student the opportunity to progress in occupational preparation.

Important differences in avocational and intellectual interests also emerge during these years. These differences also, on the whole, are to be encouraged. The schools should, accordingly, offer a wide range of electives in avocational and intellectual pursuits.

Other imperative educational needs of youth, it was believed, can best be met by educational experiences common to all students. Such is the case with the needs to maintain good health; to grow in understanding and competence as citizens, members of families, and consumers; and to develop appreciation of beauty and a scientific point of view. To meet these needs, it was decided to develop a program which would be followed by all students throughout the high schools and the community college. Differences among students in intelligence, aptitudes, health, and family backgrounds could, it was said, be adequately cared for *within classes*, by skilful teachers who understand boys and girls and who know how to make effective use of small-group and individual instruction.[31]

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[30] Since this report deals with the education of older youth, we shall not describe the junior high-school program, or refer to junior high schools, except incidentally.

Planning the Curriculum Framework

From these agreements, the next move was to build the framework of the curriculum. Not much time was required to reach a conclusion that the schools must make ample provision to meet the first of the "imperative educational needs of youth"—the need to be equipped to earn a living in a useful occupation. Time was to be allowed for this from tenth grade on through community college, the proportion of time increasing with the later years. For some, that time would be spent in vocational education and work experience pointed toward employment immediately after high school; for others, it would be given to studies preparatory to advanced work in the community college or in four-year colleges and universities. No decision was made as yet regarding the amount of time for occupational preparation. That had to wait until the plans for the rest of the curriculum became clear.

Agreement was also reached that time should be allowed for the other "differential" studies—the elective courses in recreational and intellectual interests.

But how provide those other learning experiences deemed necessary for all youth—the experiences which, it had been agreed, all youth should have in common? What are the experiences which help a person to become a more responsible citizen, a better family member, a wiser spender of time and money? How can the schools best help youth develop understanding of democracy, of the scientific method, and of rational processes of arriving at truth? By what means can youth be helped to grow in appreciation of beauty and insight into ethical values? These were the most puzzling problems of all, and months passed before the planning bodies were able to approach an answer which promised to satisfy.

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[31] Growth in ethical insight and in ability to think rationally, to express one's thoughts clearly, to read and listen with understanding, and to live and work cooperatively with others were considered to be aims of *all* educational experiences, both the "differential" and the "common."

Here was proved the wisdom of the earlier decision to involve large numbers of the school staff in the planning process. Among the studies carried on by the Commission on American City Education was a series, we recall, which had to do with educational needs revealed in various phases of American life. Each study was made by a committee of teachers and principals, often with the aid of informed laymen. Fortunately each of the committees was comprised of people representing a wide range of subjectmatter interests.

The group that had studied family life, for example, consisted of twenty-two teachers, two principals, and four laymen. The high-school teachers on the committee were from all three high schools and from practically every department. These teachers, who had studied the figures on divorce and marital discord, who had talked with the "friend of the court,"[32] who had reviewed the evidence on family life assembled by social workers and sociologists, who had visited the child guidance clinic and observed some of the casualties of faulty homes, who had attended sessions of the juvenile court and studied the facts about delinquency—these teachers became thoroughly convinced that education in family living was second to nothing in importance. By various means, they sought to provide such education in their own classes. Some used literature as a means for portraying family life and its problems in vivid concreteness; some used home economics as a medium for instruction in the human as well as the material side of home life; some used biology as a point of departure; some developed experimental "core" courses with family living as one of the major areas of study. All agreed on the importance of the area and were certain that a way had to be found to include this phase of education within the program of every student. They were so sure of it that they were willing to give up part of the time of their own subjects, if necessary, to provide a place.

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[32] An official assigned to work with persons contemplating divorce and to administer alimony.

Such experiences were not uncommon. Committees that studied other areas—health, citizenship, and consumers' problems, for example—came out with recommendations for inclusion of other experiences in a required program and did so with a willingness to make adjustments in the existing program. Moreover, everyone who served on any such study committee thereby became more receptive to the reports of the other committees. All helped interpret the entire group of recommendations to the teachers who had not served on committees. They constituted a nucleus of teachers in each school who stood ready to support a rather substantial change in the program if every youth might thereby be assured of the essentials of education.

These were the two major questions: What are the learning experiences which all boys and girls should have in common? And how may these be organized so as to be most effective? There were many discussions of these questions, which we shall not attempt to recount. In the end, most of the staff accepted the statement of "imperative educational needs of youth" as the basis for defining the "common studies" of secondary education and were ready to move to the problem of organization.

Here several possibilities were considered. One was to set up one or more separate required courses for each of the "common studies"—citizenship, family life, health, consumer economics, science, English, literature, and the arts. Another was to have a single course covering all the experiences deemed necessary for all pupils, which would be continuous throughout the years of high school and community college for two or more periods daily. A third possibility was some combination of the first two—a basic course to include most of the "common learnings," supplemented by special courses in certain fields.

The first plan had the advantage of simplicity of scheduling, because courses would be set up in single period units for either a semester or a year. It followed the traditional pattern with which pupils and teachers alike were acquainted. In effect, it would simply substitute, for some of the currently required semester and year courses, other courses with a somewhat different and more useful content. The range of knowledge required of individual teachers would be somewhat wider than in conventional courses, but not greatly so.

How the Course in "Common Learnings" Was Developed

The second plan—a continuous course using two or more hours daily throughout the middle and upper secondary schools—was advocated on the ground that people's daily work, their civic interests, their family life, their leisure-time activities, the things they think about, and their ways of thinking are all bound up together, each influencing the other. Therefore, it was said, learning in these fields will be more effective and more closely tied to the imperative needs of life if teachers and students are able to deal with all aspects of a given subject, to study problems as they are found in life outside the school, and to keep aware of interrelations which cut across conventional subjectmatter lines.

Someone cited housing as an example. In home economics, he said, pupils study about planning and furnishing their own homes. Questions relating to public planning of housing developments, government subsidies, and low-cost credit appear in "American problems" courses. Courses in physics and chemistry frequently include units on science applied to houses and their equipment. History classes often study the types of houses characteristic of various periods in national development. Courses on health have their units on "building homes for health." In mathematics, one finds lessons on computing interest charges and amortization of home loans. In [illegible]—but why go on? For nowhere—so ran the argument—*nowhere*, under the conventional organization of courses, is it possible to study the subject of housing in its *entirety*. Yet today the paramount problem for fully one-fifth of the families in American City is that of getting a home to live in, within the family means, which will serve all the members of the family in all the ways a home can and should serve them. And within five years, the same problem will rank among those at the top for the majority of the boys and girls in classes today. Why not make it possible, this advocate of the new type course concluded, for a teacher and a class to turn all their time and all their energies to an all-round study of housing? Why not develop the habit of attacking large problems and using information drawn from a number of subject-matter fields?

Some of the most persuasive arguments came from teachers who had already been doing some experimenting in this field—combining two, or occasionally three, classes, usually literature and social studies, with science or art added now and then. They and others pointed out these advantages:

Under the proposed comprehensive course, students can better understand the relations between the different things they are learning. For example, the impact of science on industry and urban life can be better understood when science and social studies are part of the same course. In like manner, literature is better understood in relation to the life of the times in which it was written and which it portrays, and in turn it throws light upon the history of those times.

Within the broad areas planned for the year, classes can begin their work in any year with the problems and purposes of which students are most keenly aware at the time. This gets the class off to an active start at zestful, purposeful learning. The skilful teacher will not be worried if these beginnings deal with the relatively simple and sometimes transient affairs of everyday life. For he knows that when once the processes of interested, purposeful learning are under way, they can be guided toward the more complex and enduring needs of youth.

Learning experiences which are important, but which do not require a large amount of time, can be included in the proposed course more readily than in a curriculum organized along the conventional semester-unit lines; for example, brief, intensive work on the improvement of study habits, or on the budgeting of time, or on the recreational resources of the neighborhood.

The proposed course would permit the adaptation of learning experiences in some fields to changing interests and outlooks as students become more mature. For example, during the three years from fifteen to eighteen there are marked shifts in the attitudes of students toward family relationships as boys and girls become less conscious of themselves as children, more conscious of themselves as potential husbands, wives, and parents. So also with interest in occupations. The tenth-grade student is interested in the choice of a possible occupational field and in planning a course to get him ready for a job that is still faraway. Three years later, he is likely to be concerned about the job that is just ahead—how to get it and hold it, requirements and conditions of work, industrial and labor relations, and the like. Given the comprehensive course, the learnings about family life and occupations could be distributed throughout the three years and matched to changing interests.

Greater flexibility in use of time would be possible and with it types of learning experiences that were impracticable under the system of single-period courses. When any problem or project required special attention for a week or a month, nearly the full triple or double period could be used for that purpose. Field trips and firsthand studies of the community would be feasible because of the longer blocks of time.

Most important of all, each teacher in the proposed course would have fewer *different* pupils and more time to work with and observe each pupil in a wider variety of situations. Therefore, it was said, let the teachers of these new "Common Learnings" courses serve also as counselors to their students. Such an arrangement would dovetail exactly with the recommendations already made that more adequate provision should be made for guidance and that most student counseling should be done by teachers.

The proposal was widely discussed before any action was taken. Some feared, as they said, a "soft pedagogy"—an aimless shifting from one point of transient interest to the next without sustained intellectual effort. In reply it was pointed out that the needs to be met would be clearly defined by the staff for each year of the course. There, to be sure, the planning-in-advance-for-everybody would end. Within the broad outlines of each year's work, each teacher and class would be free to plan and organize their own learning. But planning and organizing, in itself, is an act which requires no mean intellectual effort.

Some feared the danger of superficiality. Classes, they said, would "gallop off in all directions at once" and fail to learn anything thoroughly. The reply was made that here, as everywhere, the quality of learning would depend upon skilful teaching. Orderly sequences of learning might be expected in this course, quite as much as in single-subject courses. But there would be various types of sequences, each deliberately chosen by teacher and class because it seemed best suited to the task at hand. Sometimes the class would follow the method of scientific inquiry to conduct an experiment or solve a problem. Sometimes it would trace the relations of cause and effect through the events of history. Sometimes it would follow the logic of organized bodies of knowledge. And sometimes the order of learning would be that appropriate to growth in appreciations. To be able to choose a sequence of learning appropriate to one's aim is again an intellectual achievement.

There were also some who feared—quite mistakenly, as it turned out—that this course would put an end to the systematic study of bodies of knowledge, such as the sciences, mathematics, history, and languages. This objection was withdrawn, however, when it was shown that there would be ample time in the total school program, for any student who wished to do so, to complete all the courses in subject fields required for admission to college or university, even by those institutions which still held to traditional course and grade requirements. Moreover, it was asserted, the conventionally required subjects would appear in the new course, insofar as they were needed to meet the common needs of all youth. English language, literature, history, mathematics, and science would certainly be found among the "Common Learnings," though possibly in unaccustomed settings.

Another reservation was voiced by those who feared that the lay public would not understand the purpose of the proposed changes.[33] A social studies teacher asked: "If we don't have a separate course labeled 'American history,' will we be attacked as unpatriotic—even though we continue to teach the history of our country, and loyalty to it? Some people question anything that's done in school today that isn't exactly as it was when they went to school. Some people may even think and say that *common* learnings mean *communism!"* . . . Recognition of these possible reactions emphasized the need for building public understanding of the program as it was introduced.

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[33] The course in "Common Learnings" did become the object of public concern to a minor extent during its second year. Citizens who expressed sincere doubts about the educational value of the "Common Learnings" approach were invited to meet with teachers and school board members and to visit classes. A series of feature articles about the "Common Learnings" course in the American City *Daily Star* helped to win public support. Members of the Citizens' Advisory Council were especially active in interpreting the values of the new program.

Plans for a Program of "Common Studies"

Extensive discussions were followed by proposals to try out an inclusive course in "Common Learnings" in a number of forms. This was done for a year in all three high schools. At the end of the year, the teachers concerned and the Commission on American City Education studied the results of these tryouts, and reached an agreement as to what they would recommend for the years just ahead. In effect, they endorsed the plan of a single comprehensive course to include all "common learnings." But for certain practical reasons, to be noted presently, they proposed two modifications of this plan. Here, in brief, are their recommendations:

1. A "Basic Course in Common Learnings" should be offered throughout the high school and community college, planned specifically to meet the educational needs of youth in the fields of citizenship, economics, family living, appreciation of literature and the arts, and use of the English language. Not less than one-third of a student's time should be allowed for this course during Grades X through XII. The teacher of "Common Learnings" should also serve as general counselor to the students in his or her classes.

2. Basic instruction in science should also be one of the studies common to all high-school youth. Ideally, this instruction should be an integral part of the course in "Common Learnings." At present, however, there is not an adequate supply of teachers qualified to teach science in addition to the other phases of the "Common Learnings" course. For the present, therefore, it seems advisable to include a separate basic course in science in Grade X. This course should be closely related to the course in "Common Learnings." Membership of classes in the two courses should be identical so that teachers of "Common Learnings" and teachers of science can plan their work together and, when desirable, pool their class time for work on joint projects. After further experimentation, it may be possible to make this basic study of science a part of the work in "Common Learnings."

3. Instruction in health and physical education is also considered one of the "common studies." However, because physical education activities are

quite different in character from those of other classes and require teachers with special qualifications and because instruction in personal health requires teachers with considerable specialized training in the field, it is recommended that this instruction be given in classes separate from the "Common Learnings" course. Here also, however, teachers should be alert to opportunities for relating instruction in the different classes. Teachers of health and teachers of science will find many such opportunities. So also will teachers of health and teachers of "Common Learnings" classes, particularly when the latter are engaged in studying health conditions in the community.

These recommendations were subsequently adopted and have become the basis of the present program.[34] The areas covered in the "Common Learnings" course, the sequences of learning by years, and some of the methods of conducting the course will be described later.[35]

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So much for the story of how changes in youth education occurred in American City. The process of planning, trying out, revising, and trying out again has continued and may be expected to continue. Decisions have been looked upon only as guides to action until better decisions might be made. We shall not attempt to review all the many hypotheses and trials, all the failures and successes that have been experienced. Instead, we turn now to examine the product, the on-going program of youth education as we find it today. But even as we report, the process of change goes on.

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[34] The integrated course in "Common Learnings" is not an indispensable feature of the American City program. The alternative of building a curriculum of separate courses might have been adopted, in which case the courses would probably have been similar to those described in the Farmville Secondary School under "Community Studies," "The History of Man's Efforts To Achieve Freedom and Security," "Current Political, Economic, and Social Problems," "Family Life," "Consumer Economics," and "Literature and the Arts."

[35] See pages 237-54.

CHAPTER 8

SCHOOLS FOR YOUTH IN AMERICAN CITY

THE PROGRAM OF LEARNING FOR YOUTH TODAY

LET us try first to see this program as a whole, lest we become lost in details because we do not understand the main features.

The Scope of Secondary Education

Secondary education in American City begins with Grade VII, continues through Grade XIV, and includes post-high-school instruction for out-of-school youth. It covers the ages from twelve through twenty. Although carried on through three institutions—the junior high schools, the high schools, and the community college—the program is viewed as continuous, and is planned and operated accordingly.

The chart on the opposite page illustrates the thinking of American City's educators on the subject.[1]

The three high schools—Washington, Jefferson, and Lincoln—enrol 6108 local students—all the youth of American City under eighteen years of age save some seven hundred who attend nonpublic schools. In addition, in the high schools there are 386 students who live in suburban areas.[2]

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[1] See pages 218-19 for a discussion of the reasons why this form of organization was adopted.

[2] Woodland Park, the populous and prosperous suburban community to the north of American City, maintains a high school similar in most respects to the Washington High School in the city. However, youth from this district may attend one of the American City high schools, in order to take advantage of courses in vocational fields not offered in Woodland Park High School. The suburbs to the south of American City have fewer residents and much less wealth. Practically all their youth of high-school age attend schools in American City. In each case, the district of residence pays the local district's share of cost of instruction in American City. State funds for public education follow the students.

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AMERICAN CITY SYSTEM OF PUBLIC EDUCATION

	Grades		Ages
		Adult Education	20+
SECONDARY EDUCATION	14	Advanced Secondary School	19
	13	(Community College)	18
	12	Middle Secondary School	17
	11	(Senior High School)	16
	10		15
	9	Lower Secondary School	14
	8	(Junior High School)[3]	13
	7		12
ELEMENTARY EDUCATION	6		11
	5		10
	4	Elementary School	9
	3		8
	2		7
	1		6
	Kdgn.		5
		Nursery School	— 5

To liberal arts colleges, technical colleges, and professional schools

The community college has 3787 full-time students: 2481 from the city, 1171 from the twelve town and village high schools in American City's tributary area of some 3000 square miles, 135 from the rest of the state. It also offers a wide variety of daytime and evening classes for adults, among whom are 352 youth under twenty-one, who have left full-time school.

The Curriculum in Outline

Numbers, however, are not nearly so important as *what youth learn in these schools.* When we inquire into that, the most striking fact which we meet is that each of the three high schools and the community college endeavors to meet *all* of the "imperative educational needs of youth."

Whichever school a student may attend, he will find a balanced program, designed to help him grow in occupational proficiency; in competence as a citizen; in satisfying relationships in family, school, and other personal associations; in health and physical fitness; in discriminating expenditure of money and of time; in enjoy-able and constructive use of leisure; and in understanding and appreciation of his cultural heritage. To understand a program with so many purposes, we shall have to examine it more closely.

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[3] In this report, we are concerned with the education of youth from fifteen to twenty. Hence we shall refer to the program of the junior high schools only when necessary in order to understand education in the later years.

The staff of each school first of all endeavors to *know its students as individuals.* This is fundamental to program planning and to teaching. For while the general needs of youth are common to all, the specific needs of each individual are in some respects unique. Later we shall have more to say about guidance and the adjustment of instruction to individual students.

The curriculum of each school includes four divisions of learning, designated as "Vocational Preparation," "Individual Interests," "Common Learnings," and "Health and Physical Education." In addition, there is a tenth-grade course on science, closely related to the course on "Common Learnings." The first two divisions are referred to as the "area of differential studies" since students elect their programs in these fields from a variety of offerings. The last two divisions and the science course are called the "area of common studies" since here all students follow the same general programs. Each student normally divides his time between these divisions, according to the schedule on page 233.

The content of each of these divisions is summarized on the chart. Perhaps these brief statements will suffice for our present purpose of seeing the program as a whole. Later we shall describe each field in some detail. One point, however, should be underlined, in order to avoid possible confusion. The work in "Vocational Preparation" may be either (a) study, practice, and work experience, intended to equip a youth to go directly to work from high school or community college, or (b) the study of sciences, mathematics, foreign languages, and other subjects which are part of the equipment for advanced study in the community college, a four-year college, or a university.

For a student following the usual schedule, vocational preparation will occupy one-sixth of his school time in Grade X, one-third in Grades XI and XII, one-half in community college. On "Common Learnings," he will spend one-third of his time in each year of high school, one-sixth in community college. Science will occupy one-sixth

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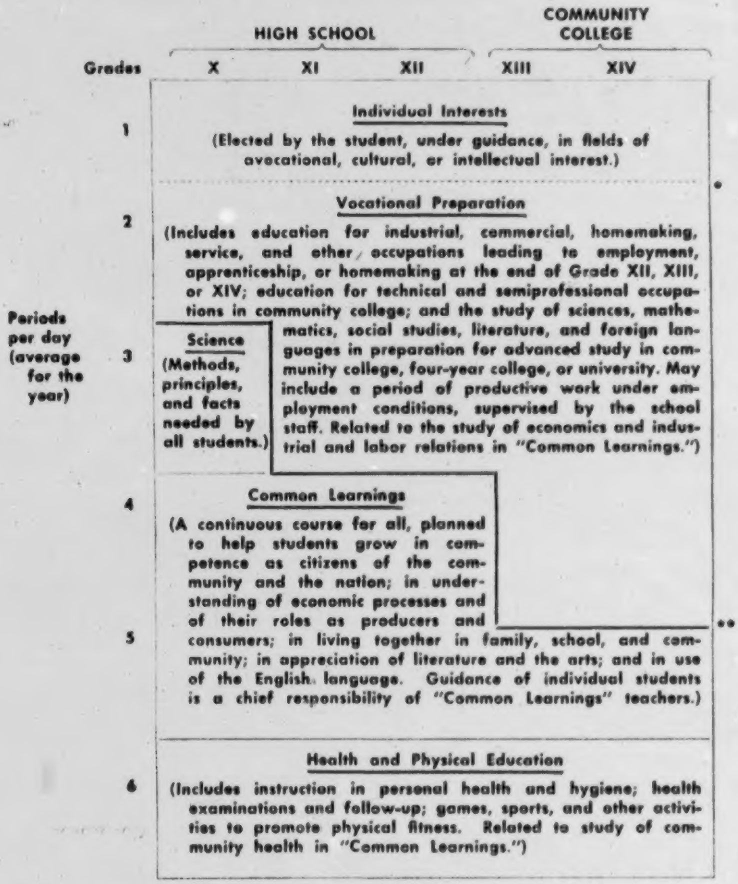
of his time in Grade X. One-sixth of his time will be given to health and physical education throughout the five years and the same to individual interests.

Provision for Flexibility

At first sight, this schedule may seem to be rigid and unyielding—ill-suited to the purpose of serving youth according to their needs. But that is by no means the case. In practice this curriculum is suf-



Individual Interests

(Elected by the student, under guidance, in fields of avocational, cultural, or intellectual interest.)

Vocational Preparation

(Includes education for industrial, commercial, homemaking, service, and other occupations leading to employment, apprenticeship, or homemaking at the end of Grade XII, XIII, or XIV; education for technical and semiprofessional occupations in community college; and the study of sciences, mathematics, social studies, literature, and foreign languages in preparation for advanced study in community college, four-year college, or university. May include a period of productive work under employment conditions, supervised by the school staff. Related to the study of economics and industrial and labor relations in "Common Learnings.")

Science

(Methods, principles, and facts needed by all students.)

Common Learnings

(A continuous course for all, planned to help students grow in competence as citizens of the community and the nation; in understanding of economic processes and of their roles as producers and consumers; in living together in family, school, and community; in appreciation of literature and the arts; and in use of the English language. Guidance of individual students is a chief responsibility of "Common Learnings" teachers.)

Health and Physical Education

(Includes instruction in personal health and hygiene; health examinations and follow-up; games, sports, and other activities to promote physical fitness. Related to study of community health in "Common Learnings.")

* Broken line indicates flexibility of scheduling.

** Heavy line marks the division between "differential studies" (above) and "common studies" (below).

ficiently flexible to permit almost any student to follow a program "tailor-made" to his needs.

Take first the possible adaptations in the schedule itself. Suppose a student is not ready to make even a tentative choice of an occupational field in tenth grade. He is not required to do so and may elect two courses, instead of one, in a field of avocational, cultural, or intellectual interest. Suppose, on the other hand, that a twelfth-grade student needs more than two periods a day for machine shop practice and related training, to get ready for a job which is awaiting him. He may then use the individual interests period for additional vocational education.

Suppose that a student has a strong interest in aeronautical engineering and wants to go to a university school of engineering immediately after twelfth grade. In his vocational preparation time, he can study physics, chemistry, and three years of mathematics; and he may use his individual interests time, if he so desires, for as many as three more courses related to his major interest. Or, take the case of a community college student who is already reasonably well prepared for employment or for homemaking but wants to learn more about history, economics, literature, or the arts. It is possible for this student to spend two or three periods a day on these interests, instead of one, with corresponding reduction in time for vocational preparation.

More important than flexibility of scheduling is flexibility of class instruction. One result of the long process of cooperative planning is that teachers throughout the American City schools now endeavor to suit learning experiences within classes to the abilities and needs of individual students.

Community College

Before we move on to a detailed description of the program, we should say a few words about the community college. Here is a new institution, only six years old, yet already enrolling nearly 4000 students. It was established because the people responsible for educational planning in American City and in the state of Columbia came to the conclusion that a large proportion of youth needed free public education beyond the twelfth grade, chiefly to prepare them for occupations which require training beyond that which is possible in high school, and also to carry them forward in the general education appropriate to free men in American democracy. That these people judged rightly is shown by the school's enrolment.

Why Do Students Attend the Community College?

1. Some students want to prepare for various technical and semiprofessional occupations which require all the training that high schools can give and one or two years in addition. In this group, for example, are those who wish to become accountants, draftsmen, laboratory technicians, dietitians, assistants in doctors' and dentists' offices, and managers of various businesses.

2. Some want advanced training beyond that which can be offered in the years of high school in the occupations for which high schools provide the basic preparation. Machine shop, metal trades, retail selling, office management, automobile and airplane mechanics, and the various building trades are examples. In one or two years at the community college, a student is able to extend his mastery of basic operations, enlarge his knowledge of related science and mathematics, secure more practical work experience, and advance in his understanding of industry, labor, and economic processes.

3. Some want to prepare for admission to professional schools and the last two years of technical and liberal arts colleges. For various reasons, they prefer to take the first two years of college or university work while living at home. For them, the community college provides courses comparable to those of the first two years of the four-year colleges.

4. Some want to round out their general education before entering employment or becoming homemakers. To them, the community college offers a wide range of elective courses in science, social studies, literature, languages, psychology, home economics, music, dramatics, art, and handicrafts.

5. There is yet a fifth group, composed of adults and older youth, mostly employed, who no longer attend school full time, but who

wish to continue their education during their free hours. Their interests are wide and varied. Some spring from their daily work, some from their home life, some from their civic activities, some from their uses of leisure time, and some from the simple desire to "keep on growing." Some enrol in the regular community college courses. Most attend evening classes which are organized especially for them. These classes may meet anywhere in the city, but they are all a part of the community college program, for this is the school system's agency of adult education.

Whence Come the Students to the Community College?

The largest number (65 percent) come from the city itself. But the community college serves more than the local community. It is the only institution of its kind in an area of some 3000 square miles, with a population of some 170,000 people, excluding that of the city. Approximately one-third of its students come from the twelve high schools of this tributary area.

A few (135 at the time of writing) come from places still more distant. The state department of education has arranged for each of the community colleges in the state to specialize in a few occupations, each of which, for the state as a whole, employs only a few beginning workers each year. The American City Community College is the state's training center for the air-conditioning and refrigeration industry and for air transportation. It is also one of two centers each for training in printing and baking and one of three centers for aircraft maintenance.

Some of these out-of-town students commute to their homes. Nearly five hundred, however, live too far away for daily travel to and from school. Residences for students have been erected with state funds, and are operated by the school system on a nonprofit basis. The community college staff endeavors to utilize the educational possibilities of residential life.

The community college is located on some forty acres of ground near the center of the city, convenient to transportation from all parts of the city and its suburbs. A part of the cost of the land and buildings (exclusive of student residences) was borne by the state, the remainder by the American City school district. In the next chapter, we shall explain the division of operating costs between district and state and the method whereby the district is reimbursed for the costs of instruction of out-of-town students.

So much for the over-all view of youth education. Now let us examine the program more carefully. First we shall look at each of the main divisions of the curriculum—"Common Learnings," the closely related tenth-grade course in science, "Health and Physical Education," "Vocational Preparation," and "Individual Interests"—and inquire what youth learn in each of these fields. Then we shall describe the schools' guidance services and tell of some of the ways in which teachers become acquainted with their students as individuals and seek to adapt the schools' programs to each student.

"COMMON LEARNINGS"

The story has already been told of how and why this course was developed.[4] Now we shall review the purposes of the course; sketch the broad outlines of content as we find it today; and comment briefly on some of the methods employed in teaching.

Purposes of the Course

Here is a course, continuous from the beginning of Grade X to the end of Grade XIV, designed to provide most of the learning experiences which, it is believed, all young people should have *in common* in order to live happily and usefully during the years of youth and grow into the full responsibilities of adult life. It is not intended to provide education in vocational skills and knowledge; in mathematics, the sciences, foreign languages, or other subjects required for vocational purposes or for advanced study; or in the avocational and intellectual fields which students may elect because of personal interest. Moreover, for practical reasons, the basic instruction in science in Grade X[5] and instruction in health and physical education in all grades, although required of all students, are not included in the present "Common Learnings" course.

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[4] See pages 224-29.

[5] The Grade X science course, however, is now so well correlated with "Common Learnings" that the two might be considered parts of a single course.

Briefly stated, the distinctive purposes of the course in "Common Learnings" are to help all youth grow in six areas:

1. Civic responsibility and competence
2. Understanding of the operation of the economic system and of the human relations involved therein
3. Family relationships
4. Intelligent action as consumers
5. Appreciation of beauty
6. Proficiency in the use of language.

SIX AIMS OF THE "COMMON LEARNINGS" COURSE

(as stated by a committee of teachers)

1. To help all youth grow in knowledge of their community, their nation, and the world of nations; in understanding of the rights and duties of citizens of the American democracy; and in diligent and competent performance of their obligations as members of the community and as citizens of the state and nation.

2. To help all youth grow in knowledge of the operations of the economic system and in understanding of the human relations and problems in economic activities, particularly of the relations between management and employees.

3. To help all youth grow in understanding of personal relations within the family, of the conditions which make for successful family life, and of the importance of the family in society.

4. To help all youth grow in ability to purchase and use goods and services intelligently, with accurate knowledge of values received by the consumer and with understanding of the economic consequences of one's acts.

5. To help all youth grow in appreciation and enjoyment of beauty in literature, art, music, and nature.

6. To help all youth grow in ability to listen and read with understanding and to communicate their thoughts with precision and clarity.

To these should be added certain other purposes, which are not distinctive of this course alone, but which are looked upon as common aims for every course and teacher in the American City schools. Chief among these are the purposes to help youth grow:

1. In ability to think rationally and in respect for truth arrived at by rational processes
2. In respect for other persons and ability to work cooperatively with others
3. In insight into ethical values and principles
4. In ability to use their time efficiently and to budget it wisely
5. In ability to plan their own affairs, as individuals and as groups, and to carry out their plans efficiently.

It is an exceedingly large order to conduct a course which is directed toward so many aims of such importance and which extends through a period of five years. To meet this order, the teachers have had at their disposal an average of two periods daily in Grades X, XI, and XII and one period daily in Grades XIII and XIV. With so much to be accomplished, it has been necessary for the teachers to plan their work with great care in order to keep first things first.

One thing was decided early and has not been changed. This was that the present problems of youth, the needs growing out of their daily lives as boys and girls, should have a place in this course no matter how urgently other matters might press for time. The years of youth, said the teachers, are precious in themselves, and the schools should help every boy and girl to gain from these years all the satisfactions which they may bring. Moreover, many felt that practice in successfully meeting the problems of each stage of life is the surest way to develop the ability to meet the problems of the stages ahead.

Another early decision was that education for civic competence should be paramount among the purposes of the course. Out of World War II, the prewar depression, and the period of postwar tensions, it was said, had come a host of difficult, complex, and exceedingly urgent public problems, both domestic and international, which now had to be solved through the processes of political democracy. To a degree unprecedented in history, this nation now requires informed and responsible citizens, diligent and proficient in doing their civic duties. As far as children and youth are concerned, the schools are the nation's chief agency for the development of these qualities of citizens. The schools must not fail to recognize the urgency of this need or to do all in their power to meet it, for the future of political democracy in this nation and in the world at large will depend in great part upon the effectiveness of their efforts.[6]

A third decision concerned method. Only the general purposes for the course as a whole and the major aims, areas, and emphases of each year's work were to be planned in advance for all classes. Within these limits, it was agreed, each teacher and class should have latitude to plan their own order of learning and choose the details of content.

The "Common Learnings" Course Today

A description of the course in "Common Learnings" is given to each student in the high schools of American City at the time of enrolment in the course. This description is contained in a pamphlet entitled *The Student's Guide to Common Learnings.* The following quotation, describing the course for the tenth grade, is taken from the latest edition of this pamphlet.[7]

COMMON LEARNINGS—TENTH GRADE

"Common Learnings 10" is the first unit in a course that extends through the three years of high school and the two years of community college. It meets for two periods daily, and is required of all tenth-graders in school.

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[6] The principles underlying a secondary-school program of education for civic competence are discussed at some length in Chapter 5 on the Farmville Community School. (See pages 82-106.) These principles are quite as applicable in the case of American City as in that of Farmville. It will not be necessary, therefore, to include a systematic treatment of citizenship education in American City. Numerous illustrations of activities in this field will, however, be included in the description of the "Common Learnings" course.

[7] This description is revised annually by a committee which includes both teachers of "Common Learnings" courses and students who have just completed the course. The "Guide" is also used as the material for discussion at meetings of parents of high-school students throughout the city. While some parents have shared in the planning which led to the "Common Learnings" course, it is advisable to keep all parents informed as to the nature of this course and the reasons which lay back of its adoption.

What does this title, "Common Learnings," mean? It means that this course consists of learning experiences which *everyone* needs to have, regardless of what occupation he may expect to follow or where he may happen to live.

Getting the Most from High School

A part of your time during the first week or two will be used to help you learn to feel at home in high school and to find out how to get around and what to do. You will be taken on a tour of the building to see all the school's facilities. You will talk about what is in store for you here, both in classes and in other activities. You will also visit the community college to see what the school system has to offer those who continue beyond high school. All this will take only a few hours, but it may save you many costly mistakes.

You will study the matter of using your time efficiently. We all have exactly the same amount of time—twenty-four hours a day. But we differ greatly in the ways we use our time and in our abilities to use it well. A little time spent now in studying the use of your time may save you a great deal of time in the long run.

You will take some tests—tests of your speed of reading, of your understanding of what you read and what you hear, of your ability to express your thoughts orally and in writing, of your mathematical abilities, and of your habits of studying. Don't be frightened by that array of tests. For their one and only purpose is to find out whether you need any help in language or mathematics or in your study habits. If you do, your teachers will see that you get that help promptly.

In class, you will read and discuss what psychologists have to say that might help you to improve your own methods of studying, reading, and listening. You will also talk about planning and budgeting the use of your time—and practice it, too.

American City at Work

Along with these studies of your school and your use of time goes a third which may require eight or ten weeks. It is called "American City at Work," though it might be "Planning One's Work in the World." Here you will become acquainted with what people in American City do to earn a living. You will visit stores, factories, offices, the new airport, and other places where people work. You will see motion pictures which will help you to understand the many different jobs that have to be done in a factory, a department store, a hospital, or a railroad terminal. You will listen to talks by employers and workers and teachers in various vocational fields. You will read about occupations, and find out which fields offer the most openings nowadays and which are overcrowded. You will learn about the work of the public employment service, the occupational research bureau, and the occupational planning council.

At the same time, with the help of your teacher, you will be learning more about your own abilities and aptitudes, and checking these against the requirements of the occupations in which you are interested. Perhaps you have already decided what occupation you want to follow; or maybe you haven't. This study should be helpful to you in either case.

Finally, you will try to fit these industries and businesses and other occupations together into what we call an economic system and see how the various parts depend on one another and how the system operates as a whole. You will have to come back to that again and again in later grades, but you will make a good beginning in tenth grade.

That is as far as "Common Learnings 10" is planned and scheduled in advance. As for the rest, you will be given the general purposes of the course and the areas within which you will be expected to work. Within these limits, your teacher, your classmates, and you will decide on the topics and problems which you will study and the order in which you will take them up.

Now, about these purposes and areas of work for tenth grade. We have already told you about two of them. One is to help you to make the most of your years in high school; to make wise choices of courses and activities; to study, read, and listen efficiently. And the second, as we have just seen, is to make you acquainted with American City at work and to help you on your way to finding a useful place in the world of work.

Civic Competence

A third and very important purpose of this course is to help you grow in knowledge of your city and in usefulness as a citizen. In order to be a good citizen in these times, you have to know a great deal about the world you are living in. That part of the world which you can see face to face and reach out and touch is American City; and here, we think, is the place to begin.

The study of American City will not be new to you. You have already made some studies of your neighborhood in junior high school. Now you will move on to the city as a whole and to more difficult matters. You will begin, of course, with the study of the city at work. What you do after that will be decided by your class and your teacher.

Here, by way of examples, are a few other studies of American City life which tenth-grade classes have made with profit.

Voluntary service organizations and what they do for the people of American City—Agencies for youth service, child welfare, education, recreation, care for the aged, aid to poor, civic improvement, and cultural advancement. This might well be related to the question of use of time. Your study might result in a decision to become a member of one of the youth agencies or to give some of your time regularly to service in some agency.

American City at play—A study of recreational facilities and opportunities together with needs and problems. This also might be related to the question of use of time and to your classwork in physical education.

Housing in relation to family life—This study would consider such questions as: What are the most important things a family can do for its members in the city life of our times? What sort of housing facilities are needed in order to enable a family to do these things well? What other conditions? How well are the housing accommodations and other conditions in American City today suited to desirable family life?

Community health conditions and needs—Such a study might be a joint project of classes in "Common Learnings" and classes in health.

City planning of residential neighborhoods—Such a study would introduce you to the work of the city planning commission. It could be closely related to the study of family life and housing, and to the tenth-grade science course, too.

Consumer Economics

The fourth area we call "consumer economics." What we mean is this: Every day you are a consumer of goods and services—of food, clothing, recreation, education, and many others. Now:

Do you know what you are getting for your money, or for your father's money, or for the tax money that is being spent on you?

Are you "getting your money's worth"? How do you know whether you are or not? And how *can* you know?

How does one determine what is a fair price for a product or a fair charge for services?

Does it make any difference in the long run whether you spend your money for product A or product B? Whether you buy from merchant X or merchant Y?

These are some of the questions you encounter very quickly when you start studying consumers' problems—as you will study them somewhere in the "Common Learnings" course.

Family Life

A fifth area is "family life." Do you know that your experiences in your home have probably had more influence on your personality than all the other experiences of your life? Too often we assume that we know how to be good members of families without giving the matter any thought.

Indeed, there are many people who have spent years in getting ready for jobs in factories or stores and who will rush into the far more important and more difficult job of making a home without any preparation whatever. In the course in "Common Learnings," you can learn a great deal about the conditions of successful family life, which will help you to be a better member of your family, both now and later.[8]

The Use of the English Language

Sixth and last is the area of growth in ability to use the English language. Whatever your future career may be, you can have no more important assets than the ability to express your thoughts clearly in spoken and written English and the ability to understand the spoken and written words of others. The engineer and the physician need these abilities as well as the lawyer and the minister. The factory laborer needs them in his work and when he goes into his union meeting. The military man needs them in order to give or receive instructions. In "Common Learnings" you will be listening, reading, speaking, and writing every day, and instruction and practice in English will be a part of your regular work.

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Such is the plan for tenth grade. The reader to whom this type of course is new may ask, "What has become of the familiar high-school subjects in this new curriculum? What has happened to English language and literature, mathematics, and American history?" The answer is that students still learn to use the English language and mathematics, that they still read literature and study American history—but the conventional labels or the accustomed setting may be missing.

We have just seen that instruction in English language is one of the main areas in the first year of "Common Learnings," and this is true throughout the course from tenth grade to fourteenth.

As for mathematics, the course of study through junior high school is intended to develop mastery over the processes and principles which everyone needs to know. If a student still lacks that mastery, remedial instruction is given in tenth grade, longer if necessary.[9]

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[8] In the description of the curriculum of the Farmville Community School, there is a more complete discussion of education in the field of family life. See pages 115-19.

[9] Remedial instruction may be scheduled either in the time allowed for individual interests or in an extra period. Occasionally it is given in the time allowed for tenth-grade vocational preparation.

High-school mathematics proper follows the line of vocational interest, and the amount of formal instruction may vary from nothing to three full years of systematic study.

We shall tell about American history in connection with eleventh-grade "Common Learnings."

Literature, in tenth grade, is particularly helpful in studying personal problems of all kinds. Students are more objective and analytical when their own problems are presented to them through the medium of a story or drama. Moreover, novels, biographies, dramas, and short stories are often the best means of giving students insight into their motives and conduct. Last, but not least in importance, some of the best things ever said on the solutions of students' personal problems were written by poets, novelists, and dramatists. We shall say more about literature later.

It is not necessary to spend nearly as much time on personal problems in the eleventh grade, for most students are growing in their ability to meet such problems without aid. Most of the problems on which assistance is required are handled by "Common Learnings" teachers through individual or small-group counseling. Now and then, however, it seems advisable for the class as a whole to consider them. When this is the case, we recall, such matters have priority.

The work of the course in eleventh grade consists chiefly of education for civic competence. It begins with a continuation of the study of the city and moves out to the national scene. We shall again quote a description of the year's work, this time from an article prepared by a committee of "Common Learnings" teachers, which appeared last year in an educational magazine of national circulation.

COMMON LEARNINGS—ELEVENTH GRADE

As far as civic education is concerned, the eleventh-grade course is continuous with the tenth. Here also the aims, at the start, are to help students to become better acquainted with their city and to help them to keep on growing in usefulness as citizens. A good beginning was made in tenth grade, but there is much more to be done.

Civic Competence

The practical difficulties of civic education are greater in cities than in small towns and rural communities. In the latter, all the students are able to go out and see their community for themselves. When they study occupations, they see them in action. When they study health, recreation, public services, community organization, and the like, they gather many of the pertinent facts through personal observation. Moreover, some of the students are able to have a junior partnership with adults in bringing about community improvements.

Such experiences are only rarely possible in high schools in a city of 150,000. Now and then a class may make a fairly complete firsthand study of health, or housing, or recreation within a neighborhood, or have a significant part in some community improvement project. But it would be nearly impossible to arrange such experiences for all students. There are field trips, to be sure, for all students and some experiences in firsthand study of neighborhoods. But most of these are samples, to give the students the "feel" of community life and of direct participation in it. A large part of what city students learn about their community must be learned indirectly, from reports and materials prepared by others.

Yet the need of the city youth to learn about his community is greater, if that is possible, than that of students in smaller communities. The reasons are these. One does not gain an understanding of a city merely from the experience of living in it. The dweller in cities will rarely understand his community unless he deliberately sets out to do so. The city is too large, too complex to yield understanding of itself. Indeed, life in the city is more likely to hinder than aid understanding. It is made up of fragments. The city dweller lives in one part of the city, sends his children to school there, and perhaps goes to church there. He works in another part, and his business or labor associations, if he has any, are located there. He shops and seeks entertainment in a third part. He doesn't see the city whole. He doesn't understand its government. He doesn't know how its economic groups and interests are dependent upon one another, and upon still other economic conditions in the region, the nation, and the world. He doesn't know, and perhaps doesn't care, about people in the city who are less fortunate than he—people who live in slums, people out of work, people who don't have the same chance that he has because their color is different.

Even if he does know something about these things, he doesn't know where to take hold to do anything about them. And so he becomes provincial—more provincial by far than people who live in the so-called rural "provinces." His interests center in his job, his home, and perhaps in his neighborhood, church, and his businessmen's service club or his local union. He is willing to leave the running of the city as a whole to somebody else—of its government, to those whom he calls "politicians"; of its business, to a few "business leaders"; of its labor organizations, to a few union officials; of its schools, to the board of education and the superintendent; and of its welfare services, to the community fund.

These things will happen, we say, to most of us city dwellers unless we make a deliberate effort to know our cities. And most of us are not likely to make that effort unless someone starts us on the way, guides us in the initial steps, and shows us why it is worth the doing. That is why this eleventh-grade course is so important.

This year the course moves on to the more complex aspects of city life.

Classes study the city's people, finding out who they are and where they live. They learn that they live together in neighborhoods, by races, by nationalities, and to some extent by family incomes. They find that there are many communities within the city community, and that some of these have their distinctive churches, clubs, fraternal and political organizations. They observe that there are conflicts and tensions among various groups in the city, sometimes within their own schools. They see evidences of barriers, misunderstandings, and deep-rooted prejudices. They seek answers to questions like these: "What causes these barriers and prejudices, and how can they be removed? What keeps people apart in a city, and what brings them together in mutual understanding? What can we do to have more of the bringing together and less of the cleaving apart?" Often they do not stop with questions and answers, but move on to translate their answers into action in their own schools and neighborhoods. One finds a great deal of visiting back and forth between high schools and a great many interschool projects of all kinds—chiefly in order to give youth from various parts of the city the opportunities to become acquainted with one another through the "unselfconscious" experiences of working together.

Classes study the employment situation and the critical problems which may develop in the years ahead when the demand for certain goods may be much less than it is now. They try to find out about the steps being taken and the plans proposed to meet those problems if they come.

Students become more familiar with the city planning commission and the various voluntary planning groups associated with it. They find that the work of these planning groups now embraces many areas—economic development, employment, housing, health, recreation, education, parks, libraries, traffic transportation, land use, public utilities, and others. These reports furnish a wealth of materials for use by the classes, no matter what problems they may be studying.

Students make the acquaintance of the process of planning as well as its products. They visit the offices of the city planning commission and observe at least one of the planning committees in action. They learn that most of the people who do the planning give their time without pay because they believe that planning is necessary for the welfare of the community. And they frequently find that there is some study which they can make as a class project which will be of timely assistance.

Before half of the year has passed, most students have a fairly clear idea as to what the city's main problems are. Moreover, by this time they see that all these problems have *connections*. The connections *reach out into national and world situations*. They *reach back into causes and movements of the past*. Local problems of employment are seen to be connected with national and world economic conditions. Local questions of race relations are but a segment of a national problem. And both sets of problems are the products of movements that have been operating in this nation for many decades.

Most of our students soon realize that they will not make much progress in dealing with problems that are rooted in the past unless they know something about the roots. They see that without this knowledge they will blunder along and make all sorts of mistakes which are quite unnecessary. They are ready, therefore, to spend practically all of the latter half of the year in studying the *history of American civilization*.

American History

We do not attempt to teach the whole of American history within one school year, for we do not think that anyone will learn the whole of history at a single reading. History is, rather, a lifelong study. One searches the past for light on some particular problems of the present, and, having found light, he acts more intelligently. New problems arise, and he searches the past once more—this time more efficiently, because there are now landmarks to guide him. Each new searching makes him familiar with more landmarks, and in time he begins to see the past whole and to feel at home there.

So, when we teach the history of American civilization in eleventh grade, we focus it on the issues in the life of American people today, of which our students are most keenly aware. Events and movements of the past become alive, because students are always searching for and finding their connections with the present. Most of the things students learn about the past become useful to them at once as aids to intelligent action in the present. These satisfactions, we hope, will cause our students to return to the study of history again and again, long after they have left full-time school and without anyone requiring them to do so.[10]

Note that we have called this the study of the history of American civilization—not of government, or industry, or any other part of civilization. The most important things about a civilization are the ideas and the ideals of the people. Such things are often vividly expressed in literature and art. Therefore, we frequently use novels, biographies, dramas, and poetry (often with the aid of motion pictures, radio, or recordings) as means of insight into people's minds.

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[10] The teaching of history is treated at greater length in the material on Farmville. See pages 95-103.

For most of our information about the third year, we continue to quote from the article by teachers.

COMMON LEARNINGS—TWELFTH GRADE

Just as the eleventh-grade course moved to the study of the city in a national setting, so the twelfth-grade course moves to the study of the nation in a world setting. The eleventh-grade study of the history of American civilization has supplied a good background of information as well as a knowledge of where to go and what to do to get more information as needed.

National and International Problems

Each class must make careful choice of areas to be studied, for national and international problems are many and difficult. It is better by far to select two or three domestic problems and the same number of the international, and to study these thoroughly, than to rush superficially through a large number.

During this year, students become familiar with the foremost thinking about plans for keeping our economic system in balance, and preventing further inflation—the nation's number one domestic problem just now. Their acquaintance with city planning helps them to understand planning on the national scene and the relations between local and national planning.

Students also examine the plans for stabilizing the present tense international situation, and avoiding further world war. This is the world's number one problem now, and probably will be for many years to come.

Many classes have found the study of American history in eleventh grade so profitable that they have planned to use some time in twelfth grade to study the history of American foreign policy and international relations, at least from 1914 down to the present. This has involved some study of the foreign policies of other countries as well, particularly of Russia, Great Britain, Germany, Japan, and China. Here, as with American history, the events and movements of the past are selected because of their relevance to the affairs and issues of the present.[11]

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[11] See: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *American Education and International Tensions.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1949.

> ### *Literature and the Arts*
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> The twelfth-grade "Common Learnings" course has another purpose, no less important than this expanding civic aim. That purpose is to give every student a wide range of opportunities to grow in ability to appreciate and enjoy beauty in literature, art, and music. Literature and the arts have been studied incidentally throughout the course, but now they become the matter of chief concern for perhaps as much as half the class time during the year. . . .[12]
>
> Here is demonstrated one of the great values of a course of this type. By the time they reach twelfth grade, students have become so accustomed to look for relationships between various subjects that the study of literature and the arts almost inevitably becomes tied up with the study of national and world affairs. Literature and the arts are used helpfully as means of understanding the peoples of other nations, as well as our own. Most students find this an exciting adventure, which opens up many new interests to them. Thanks to the work of Unesco—the United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization—and our national agencies concerned with cultural relations, a constantly growing volume of materials is available, representing the cultures of many nations.[13] Literary works of all kinds in excellent translations, motion pictures, prints of art works, recordings of music, and international radio programs make it possible for American youth to become familiar with the life and thinking of a large part of the people of the world without ever leaving their own neighborhoods.

So much for the quotation. We add one other comment. Twelfth grade often brings a resurgence of personal problems, particularly questions of what to do after high school (which are usually handled through small-group counseling), and new sets of questions relating to family life and to consumers' problems. Now boys and girls are thinking less of themselves as sons and daughters, more of themselves in the roles of makers-of-families. Twelfth-grade classes often decide to include a unit on "Friendship, Courtship, and Marriage," similar to that which we saw at Farmville.[14] There are a number of teachers in each school who have shown unusual ability in teaching this unit, and their services are made available to all classes that want them. There are also several capable people on the staff of the city office, who are glad to come and help if needed.

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[12] The teaching of literature and the arts in Grade XII in American City is similar in most important respects to that at Farmville in the same grade. For that reason, we omit a description and refer the reader to pages 132-36.

[13] National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Education and the People's Peace.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1943. p. 38-48. See also: *Education for International Understanding in American Schools.* Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1948.

[14] See page 119.

"Common Learnings" in the Community College

In Grades XIII and XIV, one-sixth of a student's time is given to "Common Learnings." Since civic matters become increasingly important as youth move toward adulthood, the course during these two years consists chiefly of study and action in the field of citizenship.

There is continuing study of current problems and their historical backgrounds, divided about equally between problems of the city and region, on the one hand, and of the nation and the world, on the other. A student is in the same class throughout the two years, so his program has continuity.

There is also a systematic study of certain areas of the world, about which the American citizen of today needs to be informed in order to render intelligent judgment on questions of international relations. The aim here is to develop well-informed "average citizens," rather than specialists on any area or in any subject field. This means that a very careful selection must be made, out of the great mass of information available about each area, of those facts which yield the maximum understanding of the civilization of that area and which are most relevant to the relations of the area with the United States. This means also that students must become familiar with sources of information which are available to the average citizen—particularly series of pamphlets, periodicals on foreign affairs, and reports of governmental and national agencies—so that they can keep up to date after they have left school.

The areas which are currently being studied during the two years of the course are (a) the U.S.S.R. and its present satellite states, (b) the countries of Western Europe, (c) the British Commonwealth of Nations, (d) China and Eastern Asia (including Japan, Korea, and the Philippines), (e) the Latin-American republics, (f) the

Mediterranean area (including Saudi Arabia, Iraq, and Iran), (g) the central European area, (h) India, and (i) Southeastern Asia (including the East Indies).

As to action, community college students are often able to take a direct part in city planning projects. Almost every one of these projects requires the assembling of an immense amount of factual material—often more than the staffs of the planning committees have time for. Each year now sees at least half a dozen college classes engaged in gathering and organizing data; preparing statistical tables, charts, and maps; and even proposing recommendations for use by one or another of the planning groups.

Other "action programs" cover such a wide range of activities that we can mention only a few. Many classes review their studies of voluntary service organizations in the city, and many students find that now, at nineteen or twenty, they can enter fully into the work of these agencies. Out of such studies has come a large student League of Women Voters at the community college and a corresponding organization for men.[15] Projects to reduce racial discriminations and prejudices and to promote intercultural understanding are also frequently found on the schedules of college classes.

Some Comments on Method

During last summer's session of the American City teachers' workshop, a group of "Common Learnings" teachers prepared a statement which they called "Guides to the Teaching of 'Common Learnings.'" Some excerpts from this statement will probably serve better than anything we could say as observers to give the reader an idea of how this course operates in practice.

> Pupil experiences in each major area—civic competence, personal relationships, family life, and consumer economics, for example—are distributed throughout the years of the course, instead of being concentrated wholly in short periods. Students mature and their experiences broaden, and with these changes their interests and purposes alter. Periods devoted to civic

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[15] Most of the members are still prospective voters, of course. But it is to be noted that the movement to reduce the voting age from the twenty-first to the eighteenth birthday is steadily growing in strength.

matters recur again and again. "Family relations" at twenty is quite a different matter from "family relations" at fifteen. There are, to be sure, some concentrated studies. The tenth-grade project on "American City at Work" and the eleventh-grade study of "The History of American Civilization" are examples. But that does not mean that students are through with their study of economics in Grade X or of history in Grade XI. These are the introductions which enable students to deal more intelligently with other economic and historical matters as they arise.

Major areas and emphases are allocated to each grade. Teacher and students are then free to determine the particular experiences which should be included and the order in which they should occur.

The experiences of the years of youth have intrinsic value, no less than those of later life. Matters of current interest to students have a just claim on the schedule of every class. For example, it may be far more important to help a student choose his out-of-school motion picture, radio, television, book, and magazine fare with discrimination than to see that he reads certain books in school. . . .

Much attention is given to improvement in the use of the English language. Knowledge of words, skill in oral and written expression, and ability to understand written and oral language are all essential to effective communication and indeed to effective thinking. In this course students are continually talking to people, listening to people, reading books and magazines and newspapers, writing reports and letters. They learn English in action.

Much use is made of current printed materials. Most of the reading of the American people is in newspapers and periodicals, so students are helped to select newspapers and magazines with discrimination and to read them with critical judgment. Pamphlets constitute a useful resource for the study of current public questions. And we must not omit the reports of the various planning groups in American City, which are used time and again in connection with community studies. Books are not neglected; but they are not the sole reading fare. . . .

The "Common Learnings" class is the center for individual and group guidance, and the "Common Learnings" teacher is the general counselor for each student in his classes. Having his students for two hours daily and observing them in many types of situations, he is in a better position to know them as individuals than any other person in the school.

The "Common Learnings" class is also the local unit of government in the school. It elects a representative to the school council. All important questions of school policy are referred to it for discussion and expression of opinion, sometimes for formal action. For such purposes, it has its own officers and committees. . . .

The assignment of teachers, on the whole, is so made as to place the specialized training and experience of various teachers where they will be most useful. For example, a teacher with special abilities in economics and sociology would probably be assigned to Grade X; a teacher trained in history to Grade XI; a teacher of literature to Grade XII. Teachers with all-round qualifications in the social sciences may be assigned to any grade.[16]

Assistance is now available from other teachers, to help with the study of subjects in which they are particularly competent. Teachers of various vocations assist in the study of American City at work. Teachers of home economics help with units on family living and consumer economics. Teachers of health and physical fitness assist with studies of community health conditions. The class advisers and teachers who have had training in psychology and mental hygiene come in to aid in the discussions of mental health, personal relations, and family life.

Systematic arrangements exist for teachers of "Common Learnings" to meet together and share their experiences and plans. Teaching in such varied fields calls for well-balanced preparation on the part of the teacher.[17] Continuous experience in working with other teachers can often supply the balance which may be lacking in the teacher's formal education. It is now regular practice for all the teachers of "Common Learnings" in each school to meet together weekly for a period of cooperative planning. At longer intervals, all the "Common Learnings" teachers of the city meet for sessions of what they call the "year-round workshop." During the school year, the teachers usually assemble by grades. But at the end and the beginning of each year, the teachers of all grades meet together, because continuity of learning from year to year is as important as sequences within each year.

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[16] Among the questions debated, when the "Common Learnings" course was being planned, were these: Should one teacher carry a class during both periods for a year? Should two teachers, with somewhat diffe[illegible] training and interests, have two sections in adjacent rooms and interchange a portion of the time, in order to utilize the special competences of each teacher? Or, should one teacher be responsible for the group, but receive assistance from other teachers, who would come in for short periods to help on special problems? No final answer was reached. Teachers generally favored the third suggestion but recognized the administrative difficulties in such an "on-call" plan. They saw also that this plan would increase costs substantially. As between the first two the decision was left to be made as seemed best in the individual school. In practice, the first alternative has been the one most generally followed. However, as additional funds have been made available, there has been a steady increase in the use of other teachers for brief periods.

[17] When the course was first started, teachers had been somewhat hesitant to take the responsibility for teaching in such a variety of fields as those encompassed within any year of "Common Learnings." After the first year's trial, however, most teachers reported that the experience had been exhilarating. They had learned along with their pupils. Moreover, many reported that, in their judgment, pupils seemed to learn more readily in classes in which they could sense that the teachers were learning.

SCIENCE

The need of all youth to understand the methods of science, the influence of science on human life, and the main scientific facts concerning the nature of the world and of man was one of the ten "imperative educational needs of youth," which became the groundwork of the curriculum in the American City secondary schools. In order to meet this need, a basic course in science is a required part of the program of all tenth-grade students.[18]

The purposes and content of the science course in American City are strikingly similar to those of the course on "The Scientific View of the World and of Man" which is offered in the Farmville Secondary School. Indeed, the two courses have so much in common that it would hardly be profitable to give a separate description of the American City course. The reader is, therefore, referred to the section on science in Chapter 5 on Farmville.[19]

A chief aim in both courses is to help students understand the social significance of science. In Farmville, the social applications were naturally made to life in rural communities. In American City, comparable attention is given to the effects of science on urban life and on industry. Particular stress is placed on the possibilities for improving health, housing, transportation, and home and neighborhood life through the application of scientific knowledge to the planning and development of cities.

HEALTH AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION

The schools of American City, from nursery school through the community college, seek to promote the health of children and youth and to help them keep physically fit. This concern for health and physical education is not new. It received a powerful impetus at the time of the first world war, when a distressingly high proportion of young men were found to be physically unfit for military service.

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[18] We have already noted the reasons which led to the separation of the course in science from the course in "Common Learnings," and also the fact that the two courses are planned and conducted in close relationship with one another.

[19] See pages 129-32.

In the years between the wars, the schools had developed a program of health services, health instruction, and physical education which compared favorably with the best practices of those times. Yet, when the second world war came, American City's educators faced the sobering facts that over 20 percent of the young men who had recently gone out from their schools were rejected by the armed forces because of physical deficiencies or disease, and that in many cases these defects could have been prevented or remedied during the school years.

They therefore set themselves with renewed determination to put into effect a program which would raise the level of health and physical fitness throughout the schools. It would take too long to tell of all the details of this program. We shall therefore direct our attention to those phases of the program which show the most marked variations from practices ordinarily prevailing in good secondary schools just prior to the beginning of the second world war.[29]

We shall mention five features which are particularly noteworthy—three relating primarily to health, two to physical education. If space were unlimited, the number could be multiplied several times.

1. *Thorough and complete health examinations lead at once to effective follow-up with students and their parents, to individual programs of health instruction, and (when needed) to plans for correction of defects or treatment of disease.*

There were periodic health examinations in American City high schools in prewar days, and no one would deny their value. But something was lacking—otherwise the proportion of young men rejected for military service would have been much lower. As the health staff of the American City schools studied these matters, they agreed on two points.

First, they said, health examinations should be thorough and complete. If a choice had to be made between frequent but hurried examinations and thorough examinations at longer intervals, the latter were greatly to be preferred. Now every pupil receives a complete examination once every two years while in school and again just prior to leaving full-time school. That is the minimum. Pupils with serious defects and students who suffer severe illnesses are examined more frequently.

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[29] American Association of School Administrators. *Health in Schools.* Twentieth Yearbook. Revised edition. Washington, D. C.: the Association, a department of the National Education Association, 1951. National Education Association and American Medical Association, Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education. *Health Education.* Fourth edition. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1948.

Second—and this point cannot be stressed too strongly—it was agreed that much more should be done to assure prompt and effective follow-up of all examinations which revealed need for corrective or remedial treatment. Several important steps have been taken to accomplish this end.

Health examinations are now made by the pupil's family physician. The schools have never given remedial treatment save in emergency cases. Treatment has always been a matter for the parents to arrange with the family physician. Therefore, it was said, let the family physician make the examination. Then it would be more likely that prompt and effective treatment would follow the examination. This proposal was discussed with the county medical society. The physicians agreed to a fixed fee for examining pupils, and the board of education agreed to pay this fee. A committee representing the medical society and the school health staff worked out the specifications for a standard examination and the forms on which the results of the examination were to be reported. If a pupil has no family physician, his parents are asked to choose one from a list prepared by the county medical society. If neither the parents nor the pupil has a preference, the school officials assign the pupil to one of the physicians on the list.

One copy of the health examination report is kept by the examining physician. Another copy goes to the parents. A third copy goes to the "Common Learnings" teacher, who, we recall, is also the high-school student's counselor. This copy becomes a part of the pupil's personal history record. It is used in guidance and program planning, and becomes the foundation for the pupil's program in health instruction and physical education. The fourth copy goes to the office of the school physician.

One of the main duties of the school physician (or medical adviser, as he is now called) is to study the reports of health examinations and to select those cases in which remedial or corrective treatment is indicated. He goes over the records of all such cases with the school nurse (now known as the health counselor), who is responsible for the person-to-person follow-up with pupils and their parents.

Most pupils require little attention from the nurse. Treatment by the family physician usually follows the examination as a matter of course, and the nurse then has only to keep informed about the treatment and to record its progress and outcome. But there are always some cases needing treatment, in which nothing is done. Then the nurse has to talk with the pupil, visit the parents—sometimes repeatedly—and perhaps arrange for treatment at one of the city's several low-cost clinics. Neither the nurse nor the physician is satisfied until he knows that the best possible treatment has been given.

Teachers of health and of physical education also study the results of the health examinations of pupils in their classes and endeavor to build for classes and for individuals programs which will best meet the needs revealed by the examinations.

Arrangements with family dentists for dental examinations are similar to those for health examinations. A dentist on the central office staff serves as dental adviser to the schools. His duties are comparable to those of the medical adviser.

Teachers of "Common Learnings" classes (who are given special instruction by the medical adviser and his staff) conduct annual screening examinations of vision and hearing. When treatment is needed, the follow-up is handled by the medical adviser and nurse in the manner indicated above.

2. *The health and safety of students have become a chief concern of the entire school, and health-promoting and safety activities are found throughout the school program.*

As American City's educators studied the health needs of their students and the ways in which the schools might meet these needs, they became convinced that a pupil's health and safety are the result of the way he lives twenty-four hours a day. Some of these hours are lived in the school. They are subject to the school's control, and the school must take full responsibility for their effects upon the health and safety of pupils.

It was agreed, therefore, that each school must provide a healthful and safe school environment and healthful living throughout the school day. This clearly is a responsibility which must be shared by every teacher, by the school administrative officers, and by the custodial staff. There was further agreement that information about healthful living must be taught at many times and places in the school's program. The desired results can hardly be secured if health instruction is limited to a few separate courses.

These views are now generally accepted by teachers in American City schools. Practically every member of the staff realizes that he has a part in safeguarding and improving the health and safety of the students in his classes. In home economics classes, one finds instruction about nutrition, home hygiene, health of young children, home care of the sick, accident prevention, and other health aspects of home life. Studies of community health conditions and problems are regularly included in "Common Learnings" classes. The courses in basic science, biology, and chemistry lay great emphasis upon the understanding of health and show how science has advanced man's ability to prevent and cure disease and to create a healthful environment. In vocational courses, attention is given to provisions for health and safety as important factors in working conditions. A large part of the instruction in physical education is directed toward the purpose of promoting good health.

In addition, time is allowed throughout the secondary-school program for class and individual instruction on matters of health not covered elsewhere in the school program. Classrooms and laboratories for health instruction are now standard equipment in each of the three high schools. The subjectmatter for health instruction is determined in part by studying the health examination records and in part by careful observation of each child and, as far as possible, of his home and neighborhood environment. Health classes are taught by teachers especially prepared for health instruction.

The school buildings and equipment have been carefully planned to contribute to the health of the school. Lighting, heating, ventilation, seating in the classroom, drinking fountains, toilets and showers, playground space, and laboratory and play equipment—even the color of the walls—are factors in the health program. The care of these facilities is supervised by the health coordinator, of whom we shall say more in a moment. The thorough understanding by the custodial staff of the relation of the physical environment to health, and the recognition of their responsibility in this matter, are largely the result of her good work.

The key person to the health program in each school is the health coordinator, a member of the faculty responsible to the principal and to the school medical adviser. It is her responsibility to educate all teachers, through various methods of in-service training, regarding their share in the school's health program and to integrate the various health activities of the school. This she does largely through the school health coordinating committee, composed of representatives of teachers of health, physical education, "Common Learnings," home economics, science, and vocational education, and one person each from the school-lunch staff and the custodial staff.

The American City schools are concerned with the health of teachers and other school personnel, as well as of pupils. Arrangements have therefore been made for health examinations for all staff members at their employment and periodically thereafter.

3. *The activities of schools in behalf of students' health are extended to homes, to neighborhoods, and to the city as a whole.*

The health of children and youth, as we have said, depends not only on their hours in school, but upon the way they live away from school—in their homes, in their neighborhoods, and at work. If the schools neglect the home and community factors, these out-of-school influences may cancel out many of the beneficial effects of the rest of the school program. While the schools cannot directly control out-of-school conditions, they can influence them by educating pupils and their parents, by cooperating with physicians and community health agencies, and by working with employers to assure safe and healthful working conditions.

Organized education is not the only public agency concerned with health. The board of education and the city board of health work in cooperation, each with a clear understanding of their respective duties and authorities. The schools also work with the county medical society, clinics, and other health and welfare agencies, in all measures which these agencies take to improve the health of children and youth.

4. *Physical education is an indispensable part of the health program of the American City schools.* The physical education activities are planned to contribute directly to the physical and mental health of the students. In addition, these activities provide the means of developing a variety of recreational interests and skills, of providing a wealth of powerfully motivated socializing experiences, and of building desirable attitudes of teamwork, sportsmanship, and respect for other persons.[21]

In the American City high schools and in the community college, each student follows a program of physical education based on the results of his health examination and on information gained by the physical education teacher from observation and other evaluative techniques. This program is composed largely of group activities, yet it is made to suit the individual. Each student has his own schedule of activities, designed to develop strength, endurance, mastery of body mechanics, skills of physical performance, and habits of exercise conducive to continuing health and fitness, all according to his own particular needs. Enough time is taken at the beginning of each year for the physical education teacher to discuss each student's program with that student in order that he may know why he is following this particular program and what he may expect in the way of outcomes. Teacher and student together set up certain standards of attainment, and each student is encouraged to test his own progress toward these standards. In practically every case, the basic program includes swimming and some form of dancing.

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[21] The recreational aspects of physical education have already been treated at some length in the discussion of Farmville. See pages 119-26. The discussion of physical education in this chapter will, therefore, be briefer than that of other aspects of health.

Beyond the program planned to develop physical vigor, each student has an area of free choice of physical activities. In tenth grade, the selection is preceded by several months of "orientation," in which the student is introduced to a wide variety of games, sports, and other physical activities and is given instruction in their basic skills. This orientation period is intended to help the student broaden his interests, lest his choices be made from too restricted a list. Thereafter the staff allows students to follow their own interests, while the teachers give their attention to instructing students in the activities of their choice, to the end that everyone may be able to do *well* whatever he chooses to do.

In this area of elective physical activities, the schools stress competitive sports—but in quite an unconventional and striking fashion. These sports had been subject to vigorous attack in some quarters, but the staff of the American City schools, after careful consideration, concluded that no motivation for the development of good health and rugged physical condition could be found that would approximate that provided by competitive athletics.

The competitive athletic program in the American City schools, however, is so different from that which prevailed ten or twenty years ago, that the old system would hardly be recognized in its new guise.

In the first place, the sports program has been greatly expanded and varied. Competition between the schools and between teams within the schools now covers at least a half dozen sports in addition to the old quartet of standbys—football, basketball, baseball, and track. The new sports that have been added include many of the games which can be played in adult life and by small groups, such as tennis, golf, bowling, and water sports.

Another difference between the present program and that of a generation ago is the composition and organization of teams. There is an extensive program of intramural athletics within each school, but the teachers in the American City high schools frankly admit that they have not yet found a way to make competition *within* the school develop the same degree of enthusiasm and interest as competition *between* schools. Therefore, in addition to the inclusive intramural program, there is an extensive interschool competitive program in a wide variety of sports.

But even this interschool competition is greatly different from that of an earlier day. For instance, there are ordinarily from ten to a dozen school football teams, each representing one school. These are not listed as the first team, the second team, and so on. All are of approximately equal ability. They play each other on equal terms within the school, and each of the teams engages in interscholastic competition. Thus, in any particular sport, such as football, the objective of Lincoln High School, for instance, is to put a larger number of excellent teams on the field for interscholastic competition than its rival schools can, due regard being had for differences in the size of the student body. Thus, when Lincoln High School plays Jefferson High School in football during the week of October 9-16, there are usually ten different pairs of teams playing against one another. The school which has the most winning teams is the winner of the week's competition. The result of this arrangement, of course, is that practically any boy, who is reasonably fit physically and who is willing to submit himself to the rather strict regime of training and practice, can play football for his school. The winning of a victory for the school involves not the selection of a mere handful of highly superior players, but the organization of a large number of teams of good players and the allocation of the superior players to the teams in such a manner as to make the total effectiveness of the school's teams as great as possible. Similar plans are followed for other sports.

Although the physical education classes are separately organized for boys and girls, in those games where mixed participation by both boys and girls is suitable—in tennis, golf, and bowling, for instance—there are teams of boys, teams of girls, and mixed teams.

The net effect of these changes has been to retain competitive spirit and at the same time spread participation very widely throughout the student body. The idea of eleven or fifteen boys playing while more than three thousand other youth sit in the stands and observe them would today be regarded with amused surprise by the students of American City.

5. *The schools endeavor to extend physical education outward into the community and onward into the years of adult life.*

Each high-school building is open from 8 a.m. to 10 p.m., and its gymnasiums, swimming pools, courts, and playgrounds are available for use by community groups at all times when they are not employed by the regular students. Each high school has thus become a community recreation center. The city recreation commission and the board of education have worked together very closely in recent years; they administer these community activities jointly; and they have a number of joint committees. It appears likely that in time it will be wise to combine the two in a single administration.

In addition, the schools carry physical education and recreational activities into neighborhoods through the services of their older students. Each year a number of the boys and girls in Grade XII and the community college are trained as leaders in neighborhood recreational programs. As soon as their preliminary training is completed, they organize and supervise block and neighborhood recreational programs, in games that can be played on vacant lots, in back yards, and on dead-end streets—softball, volleyball, darts, horseshoes, badminton, and the like. All this, of course, is a part of their regular school program of physical education. It has been found that many of these youth continue their interest in neighborhood recreation after they leave school and voluntarily organize and lead activities in the areas around their own homes.

One-sixth of a student's time is scheduled for activities in health and physical education throughout high school and community college. The amount of time and the hours may vary from day to day and from season to season, for the program is purposely flexible so that it may be adapted to the interests and needs of individuals.

VOCATIONAL PREPARATION

There are 6100 boys and girls in the high schools of American City and 3800 more in the community college—9900 in all. There are 60,000 workers in American City[22] employed in hundreds of occupations ranging all the way from manual tasks requiring a single skill to the highly skilled professions. The schools of American City have undertaken to equip the great majority of youth with the skills and knowledge needed for successful entry into the work life of the city. The schools have undertaken to carry the remainder —those whose occupations require advanced training—along the road of preparation through high school or, if they wish, through the second year of college.

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[22] Including the self-employed, but not including homemakers.

This is an enormous task, but it was assumed deliberately and with full knowledge of its dimensions and difficulties. It was no accident that preparation to earn a living in a useful occupation stood first on the list of "imperative educational needs of youth" issued by the Commission on American City Education.

How People Are Employed in American City

First, let us look at some facts about what people do to earn a living.[23] At present, 74 percent of the workers of American City are engaged thus: in manufacturing, 34 percent; trade and finance, 25 percent; transportation, 6 percent; building and construction, 6 percent; communications, 1½ percent; and utilities, 1½ percent. Twelve percent are engaged in personal service of various kinds: domestic, hotel, restaurant, laundry, cleaning, barbering, beautician, amusement, and the like. The remaining 14 percent are employed as follows: in government, 4 percent; and the professional fields, such as education, medicine, law, and engineering, 10 percent.

Approaching the same matter from the point of view of types of work which people perform, we find that 33 percent of the workers are employed at jobs below the skilled level in manufacturing, transportation, building and construction, communications, and utilities. Fifteen percent are skilled craftsmen or foremen in the same fields, positions which are usually attained only through years of experience. Twenty-four percent are clerical and office

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[23] The reader will recall that these facts were supplied by the executive director of the city planning commission, who in turn got them from the commission's bureau of occupational research.

TYPES OF EMPLOYMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

(Selected Occupations—1950)

The great majority of the nation's employed citizens in 1950 were engaged in work that fell into one of the broad classifications shown in the table below. The total number of people thus employed was 61,218,000. Of these, 43,585,000, or 71 percent, were male; and 17,633,000, or 29 percent, were female. The percentage of women in the national civilian working force increased throughout the first half of the century. In 1900, about 18 percent of those employed were women. In 1945, the last year of World War II, feminine employment reached the highest point in history —35.3 percent.

Occupations	*Men as % of total*	*Women as % of total*	*Both as % of total*
Professional and semiprofessional workers	5.9	9.4	7.0
Farmers and farm managers	9.9	1.6	7.6
Proprietors, managers, and officials, except farm	12.6	6.1	10.8
Clerical and kindred workers	7.1	26.1	12.7
Salesmen and saleswomen	5.5	8.0	6.3
Craftsmen, foremen, and kindred workers	17.8	1.2	13.1
Operatives and kindred workers	20.6	18.3	20.0
Domestic service workers	.4	9.8	3.2
Service workers, except domestic	5.6	12.3	7.7
Farm laborers and foremen	5.7	6.7	5.2
Laborers, except farm and mine	8.9	.5	6.4
	100.0	100.0	100.0

Source: U. S. Bureau of the Census.

workers in all fields and salespeople in retail and wholesale trade. These positions vary greatly in the skills required, but most of them have to be entered near the bottom of the ladder. The same might be said of positions in the various forms of personal service which employ 12 percent. Ten percent are professional and semiprofessional people. Six percent are proprietors, managers, and officials.

One thing has been clear for some time. Under present conditions, the great majority of young people will have to enter employment through beginners' jobs that require only a few skills and work their way up, often slowly, to the relatively small number of skilled supervisory and managerial positions. The professional and semiprofessional fields are an exception, but these require years of special training and altogether employ only one in ten. There are other exceptions—in some phases of trade and finance, in a few of the service occupations, and wherever a new industry (such as radio, television, electronics, or air transportation) develops rapidly. To the individuals affected, these exceptions are of great importance, but their total is not large—not more than another 10 percent. For four out of five, it is safe to say, the first job will be an unskilled or semiskilled beginner's job, and for most of these advancement will come slowly.

Why, then, some have asked, should the schools do more than offer high-school training for beginners' jobs to the great majority, add a small technical school for the few semiprofessional workers, and prepare the professional candidates for university? How justify the expenditure of public funds to provide youth with more occupational training than they will need on their first jobs?[21]

These questions were raised many times while the American City Board of Education, the Commission on American City Education, and the Citizens' Advisory Council were planning what kind of education and how much education the schools should provide for youth. When these bodies decided, as we know they did, to establish a free public institution beyond high school providing advanced vocational education in many fields, the argument which carried most weight was a very simple one.

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[21] Sixty-four percent of American City youth continue beyond high school. It is not likely that more than 20 percent of the youth population can *enter* occupations at the professional, semiprofessional, technical, or skilled levels.

The public schools, it was said, exist primarily to help boys and girls, young men and young women, develop their full capacities—not merely to supply industry and business with workers for beginners' jobs. It now seems advisable to require all youth to attend school until the eighteenth birthday, because, under modern conditions, twelve years seems to be the shortest period in which the schools can provide the minimum education needed by youth. But if a youth already equipped to take a beginner's job wishes to continue his education beyond twelfth grade, he should have the opportunity to do so, even though he develops a surplus of skills and knowledge which are not immediately marketable. The free worker in a free society, it was asserted, should have the right to acquire a reserve stock of skills and knowledge which may enable him to advance more rapidly and free him from dependence upon a single type of job.

A second conclusion seems warranted, for American City at least. The proportion of workers employed at repetitive work in factories and offices and at other unskilled work is steadily declining. Machines are taking their places. On the other hand, an increasing proportion of the labor force is employed at work in which personal relations are important—the professions and semiprofessions, retail trade, government, and various forms of personal service. This trend has been observed by educators, and the programs of the schools have been adjusted accordingly.

What the Worker Needs To Know

The Commission on American City Education devoted much time and thought to the question: What is adequate preparation for earning a living? One of its committees, previously mentioned,[25] prepared a report which showed that the well-prepared worker should learn far more than the skills and knowledge of his occupation. Some portions of this report carried such weight that they are worth quoting.

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[25] See page 215. This committee was composed of representatives from employers' and employees' organizations and other public agencies concerned as well as the schools.

"Manufacturing, trade, transportation, and construction," said the committee, "are significant for educational planning for two reasons: first, because they employ 70 percent of the workers in American City; and second, because they are accompanied by certain conditions which profoundly affect the employment and training of youth." The committee report then examines these conditions:

> *Large-scale enterprise*—Industry, business, and transportation, in the main, are conducted on a large scale. Most people engaged in these fields work for corporations—manufacturing concerns, banks, railroads, air lines, truck lines, transit companies, broadcasting companies, large newspapers, large hotels, large department stores, chain markets, chain drug stores, chain restaurants, chain auto service stations, chain motion picture theaters—rather than for individual proprietors. The proportion of owner-proprietors of small shops and stores has steadily declined over the past four decades. The young worker who enters employment in American City should be familiar with the organization and operation of large-scale enterprise.
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> *Employers' and employees' organizations*—Conditions of work in American City, aside from those phases controlled by government agencies, are determined largely by organizations. Employers are organized in various trade associations—manufacturers, retail merchants, hotel and restaurant operators, builders, and many others. Employees are organized in various unions. Most of the workers in industry, transportation, and construction are union members. Many of those in trade are also. In personal service and professional fields, the influence of organizations is smaller, but it is growing. The conditions under which youth may enter employment, the requirements of training, the provisions for seniority and advancement of workers, and many similar matters are largely the results of agreements between the organizations of employers and of employees. There are requirements of union membership to work in some plants. There are requirements of apprenticeship training to enter some occupations. To the youth entering employment in American City, a knowledge of employers', and employees', and professional organizations and their ways of working is no less important than a knowledge of his trade. These organizations can act to hinder youth or to help them. They can close the doors of work in the faces of young people, or they can open those doors. A study of their operation should have a place in the occupational training program.
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> *Employment practices*—As business enterprises become larger and more highly organized, employment becomes increasingly impersonal. Few now

> are the jobs in this city in which the young worker is personally known by the proprietor-employer. In most cases, the employer is a corporation, and the job is secured either through the personnel office of the plant or store, the public employment service, or a union. Usually the employee works under a foreman, supervisor, or manager, who is himself under the authority of someone higher in the corporate hierarchy.

The committee was apparently uncertain whether, from the standpoint of education, this condition was good or bad. It regarded the decline in personal relations between the proprietor-employer and the worker as a certain loss, especially in the cases of young people just beginning their work. On the other hand, it noted that several of the large-scale employers had established personnel departments and adopted advanced practices in initial selection, in training, in counseling, and in upgrading of workers. If such actions should become general, the committee said, the gains might more than outweigh the losses. In any event, it concluded, students should learn about the practices actually found in American City.

The report continues:

> *Government controls.* Both federal and state governments also have a voice in determining conditions of youth employment. There are legal and administrative controls over minimum age for leaving school, minimum age for part-time work, minimum wages, maximum hours of work, and compensation in case of injury—which must be taken into account in all educational planning and particularly in plans for providing work experience for secondary-school students. Unemployment insurance and old age insurance are now compulsory in most employment. All these matters should be learned by all students as a part of their occupational preparations.
>
> *Specialization of Labor.* Large-scale enterprise and mass production are accompanied by high specialization of labor on many jobs, chiefly in manufacturing, but extending also to business and transportation. Most workers in factories and many workers in offices, stores, and maintenance shops perform a relatively small number of operations a great number of times. Workers can be trained for most repetitive jobs after they have been employed and in a comparatively short time. Furthermore, the training often requires specialized and expensive equipment which is not now available in our schools. Employers and labor leaders agree that it is far more important for boys and girls to receive all-round training in basic processes and with basic tools and machines than to be trained in the specific operations of a particular job.

Replacement of men by machines—Each advance in machine production results in the reduction of number of worker-hours per unit of product. Unless an advance is accompanied by reduced hours of work or by increased total production, the effect is to throw men and women out of work. We believe that technological improvement will continue. It will be particularly marked in industry, but it will extend also to construction, transportation, communication, and office work. We who plan for youth education must take account of this fact. We should particularly note that the workers replaced by machines are usually those at the repetitive jobs requiring only a few operational skills.

Dependence on national and world economic conditions—The industry, trade, finance, and transportation of American City are delicately adjusted parts of a national system with worldwide connections. Any disruption of the system or of any important part of it will be quickly reflected in local affairs. Both economic and educational planning must consider national and world conditions, as well as local. The workers in American City must inevitably be concerned with the relations of the city's trade and industry to the national and world system. If they are to share intelligently in meeting problems that may arise locally because of disruptions and changes elsewhere, they should be equipped to do so as a part of their school training.

Seven Purposes of Vocational Education

Aided by this and other committees the Commission on American City Education drew up a statement of seven qualifications of the person equipped for work in the cities.

1. The youth prepared to be a successful worker in any occupation should have mastered the basic skills of his occupation and as much of the related scientific and technical knowledge as is possible within the limits of his abilities and the time available.

2. He should have had experience in productive work under conditions of regular employment (or conditions approximating those as nearly as possible), where he can learn the requirements of work for production and be helped to develop those personal qualifications of dependability, cooperation, and resourcefulness which bulk so large as factors in success.

3. He should know the requirements for entering the occupation in which he is interested—such as education, apprenticeship training, health and physical fitness, previous experience, and union membership (if required). He should also know how to go about getting a job through the public employment service, the personnel offices of employers, and labor unions.

4. He should understand the functions both of management and of employees' organizations in his occupation and the relations between them. He should be acquainted with the purposes and operations of labor unions, if there are such; the obligations and privileges of union membership; and the duties and authority of union officials. He should likewise be familiar with the duties and authority of management—particularly foremen and supervisors. He should know about the machinery for handling relations between management and employees—about collective bargaining, seniority regulations, and the means of dealing with grievances and disputes. He should also be informed about the availability of credit unions, group hospitalization insurance, consumers' cooperatives, and other cooperative services.

5. He should understand the relations of government to his occupation—the applications of federal and state laws relating to such matters as unemployment compensation, old age and survivors' insurance, employers' liability, collective bargaining, and safety provisions.

6. He should know how the industry, business, profession, or service field which he expects to enter operates as a whole and about its place in the life of the city. He should be familiar with the most reliable predictions as to the future of his occupation and with the work of local planning bodies which relate to his work. And he should have some understanding of the national and possibly the international setting of his occupation and of the general economic conditions which shape its course.

7. Finally, he should know how to use the public services available to him after he leaves full-time school—particularly the services of placement, guidance, advanced vocational training, recreation, health, and civic education.

These have become the purposes of occupational preparation in American City's schools, and the programs of the high schools and of the community college are being fashioned accordingly. We say "are being fashioned" because the process is far from complete. To move into such a comprehensive program of occupational preparation for all youth—much of it uncharted territory—is a colossal undertaking which will require years of experimentation and improvement.

The Teaching Staff

This task of preparing students for occupations enlists the cooperation of practically the whole school staff.

The leadership and support of the principal is an important factor. American City is fortunate in having three high-school principals all of whom have helped to plan the present program and now support it firmly. They and the principal of the community college have made it a point frequently to attend meetings of advisory committees on vocational education [26] and thereby to keep in touch with representatives of employers and labor.

Class advisers also help. Two in each high school are responsible for seeing that vocational and "Common Learnings" teachers have the latest information about opportunities and requirements in various occupations, as it comes from the schools' city office of guidance and pupil personnel service.[27] Two are responsible for placement of students in part-time employment and for administration of student-aid funds. They make it a rule to consult the students' vocational teachers about all placements, whether with private employers or under the student-aid program, so that all work experiences may yield maximum educational value. There are counselors with comparable duties in the community college.

"Common Learnings" teachers, who also serve as general advisers to students in their classes, counsel students at times of initial choices of occupational fields and when students are considering changes of choice. "Common Learnings" courses supply information about the economic life of the city, the work of city planning agencies, occupational trends and outlooks, labor and industrial relations, and labor legislation. Such information tends to be general in character, since the "Common Learnings" classes are cross-section groups. There are some periods, however, both in Grade XII and in the community college, when the usual organization of "Common Learnings" classes is set aside, and students meet according to their vocational interests. On these occasions, vocational teachers work with the "Common Learnings" teachers, and representatives of employers' and employees' organizations are frequently brought in for consultation.

Teachers in health and physical education help with instruction relating to personal health, industrial hygiene, safety, and first aid.

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[26] See pages 286-87 for a description of these representative advisory committees in the various occupational fields.

[27] See pages 299-300 for information about this office.

However, the greater part of vocational preparation remains to be done by the teachers of vocational courses. It is they who must help the student to understand the nature of the work he has chosen and to plan the course that will equip him to do it; who must give the instruction in the skills and knowledge of the chosen field; and who must supervise the student on his work experience project. It is they who must bring all the general information about economic processes, labor legislation, and industrial and labor relations to a sharp focus on the particular occupation for which the youth is preparing. Much of the latter is done incidentally as questions arise in shop or classroom.

All of these duties call for versatile teachers; and thereon has hung a large problem. For most of the teachers of vocational courses are new to the American City schools. The enrolment in high schools has grown by more than 50 percent in the past five years, and the community college is only four years old. Instructors were needed who, first of all, had had successful practical experience in the occupations which they were to teach. Many such people had shown good ability as teachers in the war production training program, and now were available for regular teaching positions. There were some people, too, who had had comparable experiences in the Army and Navy and in the training-within-industry program. Still others became available from industry, as war production tapered off or shut down entirely. The schools were alert for all such people.

More was needed, however, than proficiency in one's occupation. These new teachers needed a broad understanding of the philosophy of the educational system which they were entering. They needed training in methods of teaching, in the psychology of learning, in methods of counseling, and in the understanding of adolescent youth. And they—and most of the older teachers as well—needed more education in economics, labor and industrial relations, and labor legislation.

An extensive program of in-service education for teachers was called for; and the Commission on American City Education, working with the teachers concerned, soon presented a plan to the superintendent and the board of education. Summer workshops, continuous conference and committee work through the year, and extension courses in economics and education, "tailor-made" for this purpose by one of the state institutions of higher education, have been used in combination and to good effect.

Education in Vocational Knowledge and Skills

Assuming that all occupational preparation is aimed toward the seven purposes listed earlier, we shall direct our attention, from this point on, to what the schools of American City are doing to equip youth with vocational knowledge and skills.

Our task will be simpler if we classify these youth in terms of time when they leave or plan to leave full-time school. Three main groups may be identified, and under the first of these, four subgroups.

1. Those who leave full-time school from high school (normally at the end of twelfth grade)
    a. Those who go to work at regular employment
    b. Those who go into indentured or formal apprenticeship
    c. Those who become homemakers
    d. Those who enter the armed forces.
2. Those who continue in community college for one or two years, preparing for work in one of the fields for which the college offers terminal preparation.
3. Those who plan to attend universities or four-year colleges, many of whom attend community college for two years.

It is never possible, of course, to know with certainty in which group a boy or girl will eventually fall. Students are free to change their plans, under guidance, and many changes are inevitable. But at any one time these groupings will include practically all the American City student body.

Vocational Training in High School

1. *For those who leave full-time school from high school.* The first group—those who leave full-time school at the completion of

twelfth grade or at the eighteenth birthday—at present constitutes about 36 percent of the high-school students. With two exceptions, the general plans for the four subgroups are similar.

The first exception is this: Those who go to work at regular employment, directly from high school, should, it is believed, include in their programs a supervised experience of productive work under employment conditions.[28] With rare exceptions, such a work experience is a required part of their program of occupational preparation. Usually it comes during the twelfth grade, when a student is likely to have his post-graduation plans fairly well in mind.[29] There is no prescribed length for this work experience. It may be a part-time job extending through a year or more. It may be a full-time job shared by two students. It may be a full-time job, held by a single student for a briefer period—a summer job, for example. The nature and length of the job are worked out by the student and his vocational adviser with a view to giving the student the experience which will best serve his needs.

For those who go from high school into apprenticeship the supervised work experience is considered desirable but usually is not required. For those who go into homemaking from high school, a home project program, planned and carried out under a teacher of home economics and continuing through a year or longer, is the counterpart of the work experience project.

The second exception is that many of those who go to work directly from high school spend the last four to eight weeks of their vocational course in intensive practice of the skills of the particular jobs which they expect to have when they leave school. This intensive training is possible, of course, only when a student knows in advance what his job will be and when the school has the equipment for training. In prewar days, it was usually impossible to get a job until one was ready to go to work. But during World War II, employers learned that it was to their advantage to anticipate employment needs and to pass such information on to young people through the schools. Many employers have continued this practice. Often the student's supervised work experience leads directly to a job or provides the intensive training needed for the first job. This is considered highly desirable, and is arranged whenever possible.

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[28] See pages 283-86 for more complete discussion of supervised work experience under employment conditions. The chief objective of such experience is educational; accordingly, it is not identical with part-time work to earn money for expenses, although the same work may serve both purposes.

[29] In any case, the work experience project would not be scheduled before the student's sixteenth birthday.

The program of vocational education in high school is planned *to be comprehensive for the school system as a whole,* with *some division of responsibilities among the three high schools.* The high schools of American City together offer preparation for practically all the major occupational fields which youth may enter with a background of high-school training. Some fields, to which the annual outlet is large, are found in all three schools; others, with limited outlets, in only one school.

Here is the list of the fields in which training (with appropriate shop and laboratory equipment) is now offered:

In all three of the high schools [30]

Business education
Distributive occupations (retail and wholesale selling)
Homemaking

In one high school only

Agriculture [31]
Airplane mechanics
Automobile mechanics
Building trades
Cosmetology (beauty parlor operations)
Domestic, hotel, and restaurant occupations [32]
Electrical trades
Machine trades
Metal trades
Printing trades

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[30] Each high school also has a large and well-equipped general shop used for both vocational and nonvocational instruction and practice.

[31] Includes nursery operation, floriculture, landscape gardening, poultry raising, dairy farming, and truck gardening—the forms of agriculture found in the city and its suburbs.

[32] The schools, the public employment service, and the occupational planning council,

The fields in the latter group are distributed among the three high schools. A student may attend the school which offers training in the field of his interest, regardless of his place of residence.

The course in each occupational field is continuous throughout the three years, and the same teachers usually carry a class through from Grade X to graduation. This permits an integration of learnings which would be difficult under separate semester or year courses. Shop or laboratory practice, related science and mathematics, field trips to observe the occupation in action, and many of the nontechnical learnings mentioned earlier are all taught in the same course at the times deemed best for learning. Much of the work is done on individual and small-group schedules, thus making it possible to adapt students' programs to their particular interests and to adjust their progress to their learning abilities.

The high schools do not attempt specialization within these broad fields. A basic course in machine trades or metal trades is considered the best preparation which the high school can give for work in the manufacturing industries. So also with business education, distributive occupations, and the rest. For those who go to work from high school, the supervised work experience and the intensive training for a particular job at the end of Grade XII, both referred to above, supply as much specialization as seems feasible or desirable at this level. Beyond high school, further specialized training may be secured in either of three ways: through community college, through

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working together, have made considerable progress in raising household, hotel, and restaurant service—and particularly the first—to the semiskilled and skilled occupational levels. The training in foods, clothing, child care, household care, and home management, which a girl receives in a three-year course, certainly entitles her to higher pay and social status than that formerly given to "maids" and "domestic servants." By working with various women's clubs, church groups, and PTA's, the agencies mentioned above have secured the cooperation of a large number of women employers, in the matter of personal treatment as well as wages, and the demand for girls with this training now exceeds the supply. The community college has recently experimented with a two-year advanced training course to prepare young women to be "household managers," that is, to take over full responsibility for the care and management of homes, including children. This is considered a semiprofessional occupation, and the college and employment service are attempting to establish it as such. Thus far the results have been encouraging. The demand is limited, however, and comes chiefly from women employed in the professions and the higher ranks of management. The training, of course, is valuable in preparing young women for the management of their own homes.

evening classes for employed youth and adults, or through apprenticeship. High-school students of unusual ability may go at once to the community college for advanced vocational training if they have mastered the fundamentals of the high-school vocational courses before the end of the twelfth grade.

2. *For those who plan education beyond the community college.* We turn now to those who plan to prepare for the professions or to complete at least four years of college. Most of what was said of this group at Farmville is applicable also in American City.[33] Each student is assigned a vocational adviser at the beginning of tenth grade—a teacher who makes it his business to keep in close touch with the occupation in which the student is interested and with the colleges and universities which the student is likely to attend. Each student, in consultation with his adviser, maps out a program through twelfth grade which seems best fitted to his particular plans and needs; and the school staff endeavors to make it possible for him to follow that program with profit.[34]

Here, as at Farmville, every student spends some time in observing the profession or other occupation of his choice, as it operates in the community. City students, no less than their rural cousins, need to understand what is required of the physician, the lawyer, the teacher, the engineer, or the business manager, and to see the possibilities for public service as well as private satisfaction in each of these fields. They need also to see how their present studies of science, mathematics, history, or languages are part of the essential equipment for their later careers and not simply courses prescribed for college admission.

Each of the three high schools offers courses in biology, chemistry, physics, mathematics, languages, literature, history, and other social studies.[35] The occasional individual who needs a preparatory course not included in high-school offerings can usually find such a course in the community college and may enrol in it while still a student in high school.

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[33] See pages 77-81.

[34] There are some students, of course, whose present choices do not extend beyond the decision to prepare for college. In planning college preparatory programs, such students are advised by their general counselors, the teachers of "Common Learnings."

[35] In addition to the study in these fields included in "Common Learnings." Although intended primarily for students who need them in preparation for advanced work in community college and beyond, these courses may be elected by any student in the time allowed for individual interests.

One principle underlined by World War II experience is that education should be more concerned with the thorough learning of basic principles, processes, and information, than with the relatively superficial "covering" of large bodies of subjectmatter, much of which may soon be forgotten. The exacting demands of the professions and the competition for admission to professional schools re-enforce the need for such instruction. The teachers in all of the subjects mentioned above have been reconstructing their courses of study with this principle in mind.

To provide for the students of superior ability, teachers in all courses endeavor to know their students as individuals and to suit the program of learning to individual capacities. By frequent use of small group projects and individual work schedules, the teachers seek to keep each student's learning up to a level commensurate with his ability. The aim is not so much acceleration as enrichment of learning. Scientific testing of abilities and achievements has largely superseded the old system of comparative "grades" under which the rapid-learning student could easily "get by" with comparatively little effort. Now each student's progress is measured against his own ability to learn, and success is judged in terms of the ratio of one's intellectual achievement to his ability to achieve.

There are some students in each school who follow one of the trade, commercial, and homemaking courses through most of high school, and then decide that they want to go on to university or college. They are in no way disqualified, provided their general abilities and quality of work will meet the admission standards. In his two years at the community college, such a student will have ample opportunity to take the courses required for admission to the upper divisions of the universities.

3. *Vocational education in community college.* The community college, as we have seen earlier, is an integral part of secondary education in American City. Its curriculum is composed of courses in the same four major divisions as the curriculum of high schools:

"Common Learnings," "Vocational Preparation," "Individual Interests," and "Health and Physical Education." The program of the full-time student normally includes work in all four fields. Here, we are concerned only with the program of "Vocational Preparation."

The time devoted to vocational preparation may be used either to complete courses corresponding to those of the first two years of four-year college or university, or to prepare oneself for an occupation which can be entered directly from community college. This report will be limited to the latter—to terminal education at the level of the thirteenth and fourteenth grades.

Within this area, we note four differences between the community college and the high schools: (a) In the community college, more of the student's time is given to vocational preparation—normally three hours a day or half time, although it may be more or less. (b) The community college serves not only the city, but also the large tributary area within a radius of some fifty miles, and, in the case of a few occupations, the state. (c) The community college offers training in a much larger number and variety of occupational fields than the high schools. (d) The community college offers part-time education (either vocational or general) to youth no longer attending school full time and to adults.

More than thirty occupational fields are now included in the community college offerings of *terminal vocational education.*

All the fields found in the high schools are represented here—metal trades, machine trades, auto mechanics, business education, distributive occupations, and the rest. Many students want advanced training beyond that available in high schools. Specialization within these fields is often possible in community college. Here are a few examples: Within the machine trades field, one may specialize in refrigeration and air conditioning, which is now American City's most thriving industry and its chief employer; within the metal trades field, one may specialize in airplane construction; within the electrical trades field, in electronics, radio, and television; within the distributive occupations field, in clothing or food merchandising.

In addition, the community college offers training in a number of technical and semiprofessional occupations which require education beyond high school. A sampling of the current catalog yields these titles: architectural and mechanical drafting, assistants in nursery schools and play centers for young children, attendants in offices of physicians and dentists, civil service occupations, hospital and public health assistants, laboratory technicians (biological and industrial), radio and television broadcasting (program planning and presentation), recreational leadership, and transportation management.

The offerings of the community college also reflect the needs of the tributary area and the state. The twelve "feeder" high schools in the area around American City are (with the exception of suburban Woodland Park) village and town schools of the Farmville type, most of them somewhat larger than Farmville. All, like Farmville, offer thirteenth- and fourteenth-grade training in a few of the chief occupations of town, village, and farm. None of them attempts to give specialized training in occupations found chiefly in cities, or to offer university and college courses at the junior college level. Most of their students who wish such education go to the American City Community College. These "feeder" schools also send students interested in occupations of their own communities, in cases in which the number of workers is too small to justify local training; for example, banking, floriculture, and cosmetology.

As for the state, the American City Community College has been selected as the state's training center for the air-conditioning and refrigeration industry and for air transportation, and as one of two or three centers for aircraft maintenance, baking, and printing. There are similar institutions in the state which specialize in other fields with limited employment opportunities, and to these go the American City youth who are interested in such occupations as commercial art, photography, lens grinding, watch repairing, journalism, and cabinet-making.

Training varies in length. In most cases, it extends through the two years of the community college. There are fields, however, in which the training can be given in eight, ten, or twelve months. Much of the training, moreover, is individualized, with each student progressing on his own schedule. When a student completes his vocational training before the end of two years, he may, if he so desires, continue his other community college courses in either day or evening classes.

Admission to courses is adjusted approximately to anticipated opportunities for employment, always allowing for some possible expansion of employment and for some dropouts along the way. The staff does not wish to oversupply the employment market to the extent that young people cannot secure even beginners' jobs. At first sight, this practice may seem inconsistent with what was said earlier about equipping youth with a surplus of skills beyond the needs of the beginning job. This is not the case. The staff is quite willing to "overeducate" the young worker who can get a beginner's job in the field of his training. It would be quite another thing, however, to train a large oversupply of bakers, laboratory technicians, printers, and cosmetologists, many of whom would then be unable to get even beginners' jobs in these fields.

Work Experience as an Integral Part of Vocational Education

Most of the students in community college terminal courses include in their programs a supervised work experience under employment conditions.[36] The administration of this program is no small task. Some 900 jobs of this type have to be located each year for community college students and some 400 more for high-school students—even more, in fact, since some jobs must be rejected because of unsatisfactory working conditions.[37] Those employers, to whom this is something new, have to be informed as to the educational purposes of the work experience and the joint supervision by employer and school staff which is needed to accomplish these purposes. Working conditions have to be investigated to see that they meet all requirements of laws and regulations about safety and the employment of minors. Jobs have to be assigned to students, jointly by counselors and vocational teachers, so as to fit into their individual plans as helpfully as possible. And supervision must be provided by the vocational instructors as well as the employers. This program is possible only because of cooperation on the part of most of the larger and many of the smaller employers, of the public employment service, and the occupational planning council.[*]

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[36] *See pages 71-73 for further treatment of productive work experience in the educational program.*

[37] *The number of different students who work on these jobs in the course of a year is much larger. Last year's reports showed over 1700 community college students and around 800 high-school students.*

Probably the experience during World War II did more than anything to win the support of employers. In those years, when labor was scarce, the industries and business concerns turned to the schools for help. Hundreds of boys and girls went to work on the "four-four plan"—four hours in school, four hours at work with school supervision and credit for work. The results, on the whole, were highly satisfactory to employers. Factories found it almost as convenient to schedule four-hour shifts as eight-hour shifts. Retail stores found it economical to use students during their peak business hours. Offices requiring full-time workers found it possible to arrange for two students to share a single job. Many of these young workers, aided by classwork and school supervision, grew rapidly in their efficiency and proved as productive, or more so, than older, more experienced workers.

When the war was over, the employers expected the school authorities to come to them and say: "Give us back our boys and girls. You don't need them now, and we want them back in our classrooms." Instead, to their surprise, the school officials said: "This work experience is a valuable part of a young person's education. We ask you to continue to employ our students for a part of their time. We will continue to teach them in school and to share their supervision with you in order to help them learn as much as possible from their work experience. And we will give them school credit if their work is done satisfactorily." Employers readily saw that, from a business point of view, this proposal had many points in its favor. And, in addition, most employers were pleased to recognize that the plan yielded educational values to youth.

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[*] See pages 303-304 for descriptions of the occupational planning council and the junior placement service, respectively.

Private employment alone, however, has not supplied all the jobs which are needed. The schools themselves, the city planning commission, and other public agencies have also furnished many positions. Funds for student aid are also often used to serve the dual purpose of meeting the student's financial needs and supplying the supervised work experience.

Later on we shall tell how the schools have been able to meet some of the practical difficulties of finding employment, not only for the 2500 students who annually need carefully planned and supervised work experience as a part of their vocational education, but also for hundreds more who need part-time work in order to meet their personal expenses while attending school.[39] Here we simply record the fact that, thus far, the schools have had remarkable success. To be sure, their success has been achieved in a period of high general employment. They have not yet had to meet the test of large-scale unemployment. But if that time should come—and everyone hopes it may not—we may feel reasonably certain that employers and the public at large will recognize that society has an obligation to its youth, no less than to its older members, and that public funds will be so distributed that youth may not be deprived of one of life's indispensable ingredients—the experience of productive work.

Two other matters deserve mention. American City educators have recognized from the start that if students' work experiences are to have maximum educational value, they must be supervised by representatives of the schools as well as by the employers. It was agreed that the supervisor should be one of the students' vocational teachers. Arrangements were therefore made to release vocational teachers from a part of their schedule of classroom and shop work in order to permit them to visit their students on work experience projects.

After a year or so, these vocational "coordinators," as they were called, agreed that the educational values of work experiences would be enhanced if there were definite and fairly uniform understandings between employer, student employee, and coordinator at the beginning of each work project. They presented this matter to the representative advisory committees (to be mentioned in just a moment) and received generally favorable responses. As a result, a committee representing employers, organized labor, the vocational teachers, and students worked out a "Statement of Standard Employment Practices To Be Followed in the Cooperative Work Program." With minor revisions from year to year, this has proved to be a most valuable aid.

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[39] See pages 302-305.

Representative Advisory Committees on Vocational Education

This report of vocational education would not be complete if we did not record the great contributions made by the representative advisory committees in the various occupational fields representing employers, employees' organizations, and the schools.

Advisory committees were established in some of the trades long before World War II—chiefly in the trades in which labor was well organized. During the war, in American City and many other cities, the number of advisory committees was enlarged to include all the important war industries. These committees proved so helpful—one might even say indispensable—that the school authorities determined to enlarge the number still further.

At the present time, there is a city advisory committee which deals with vocational education in the school system as a whole. In addition, there are a large number of craft advisory committees, one for each of the vocational fields represented in high schools and one for each of sixteen additional fields in the community college.

The advisory committees are consulted on all matters of general policy in vocational education. They have helped to determine the needs for trained workers in various fields and to select the occupations to be included in the curriculum. They have advised the school staff as to the nature of the training for each field, the qualifications of instructors, and the equipment needed. They have strongly supported the work experience program. Indeed, without their assistance it is doubtful that work experience on a large scale would have been possible. They have helped to remove barriers to youth employment. In a word, they have built some strong bridges across the gap which once separated schools and the world of work.

INDIVIDUAL INTERESTS

In the process of trying to give students all the equipment they will need to become good citizens, workers, and members of families, the fact that some things should be done for the sheer enjoyment of doing them is often overlooked. The American City schools are alert to this need and have arranged the program so that one-sixth of the student's time is spent in activities which are pursued for no reason other than that the student is interested in them.

This need to develop individual interests is particularly acute for those whose work is of a routine character. The high-school counselors recognize that, unfortunate though it may be, many workers in routine jobs will have to find their chief enjoyments and satisfactions during their leisure time. They therefore try to help all students to use their elective periods in high school for the development of avocational interests which will endure and expand through the years of adult life.

Except for the fact that the American City high schools have rather large enrolments and are, therefore, able to specialize the instruction somewhat, the essential characteristics of the program for the development of individual interests are not different from those that have already been described for Farmville.[40] The program is extremely broad. It includes reading; a wide variety of hobbies; the playing of musical instruments, alone or in groups; singing; painting; photography; other representative arts; and many handicraft activities. Student leadership in these activities is fostered, and most of the classes are organized as clubs with their own student officers.

Since the purpose of these activities is primarily avocational, no effort is made to develop professional artists. However, from time to time, young people of unusual talent have had that talent fostered in the American City schools, and have succeeded as professional musicians, artists, writers, actors, and athletes.

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[40] See pages 123-26.

Students' choices of individual interest courses are not restricted to leisure-time activities. A student may have a keen desire to study chemistry, literature, or a foreign language, quite apart from the needs in his prospective vocation. If so, he is free to pursue this interest in his elective period. Many boys who are preparing for college elect a year of general shop, because they feel that in this technical age everyone should know how to handle machines and tools. Hundreds of girls each year elect a one-year course in homemaking, offered in each of the high schools and the community college, and designed especially for girls who do not take any other courses in homemaking; for every girl, whatever her future career may be, is likely to be a homemaker. In a word, time for individual interests means exactly time for individual interests whatever they may be.

SUITING EDUCATIONAL SERVICES TO THE NEEDS OF INDIVIDUALS

The public schools of American City are committed to two principles, both easy to state, each enormously difficult to realize in practice. They are committed to the principles that all American youth should have access to equal educational opportunities and that each American youth should have access to educational services suited to his particular needs. Each year they are seeking to apply these principles to more than 11,000 students enrolled in three high schools and the community college. No one—least of all, those most responsible —would claim that the schools have fully achieved these objectives. No one who has had opportunity to observe the facts would deny that they have made great progress. In the closing pages of this chapter we shall report their progress under seven headings:

1. Guidance Services
2. Individualized Programs and Records of Progress
3. Meeting the Problem of Money for Personal Expenses
4. Adapting Schedules to Individuals
5. Special Opportunities for the Gifted
6. Special Services for the Handicapped
7. Continuing Services after Youth Leave Full-Time School

1. *Guidance Services*

Guidance holds the same key position in American City that it held in Farmville. All that has been said about guidance there might be repeated here—that it is the art of helping boys and girls to make their important plans and choices in the light of facts about themselves and their world; that it is not limited to occupational choices and plans, but relates to any and all of the activities and problems of youth; and that it is not primarily the work of specialists, but a service by teachers assisted by specialists. Most of what has been written about the Farmville counselors' ways of working with students might be said also of counselors and teachers in American City.[41] And we need do no more than record the facts that guidance is continuous from elementary grades through community college, and that guidance services follow the youth who moves from one community to another.

The need for providing an adequate system of guidance was recognized early in the process of planning for American City's schools, and ranked high on the list of things to be done.[42] Then came the question, "By whom shall guidance be rendered?" Some favored a large staff of specialists. Others advocated guidance by regular teachers. After careful consideration, the Commission on American City Education recommended that the chief responsibility should be placed upon teachers, and that specialists be used only when necessary to supplement teachers. This counsel has prevailed. This recommendation did not stand alone, however. With it were coupled two others: (a) that the new "Common Learnings" course should meet for an average of two periods daily, thereby giving the teachers time to become acquainted individually with their students; and (b) that all teachers serving as general counselors should be allowed time on their working schedules to perform their counseling duties. The latter point is worth underlining. The committee which studied these matters estimated that the cost of adequate guidance services in terms of time and money would be about the same whether the main work of counseling were done by teachers or by special staff counselors. The decision to place the bulk of the load on teachers was reached because it was believed that such a plan would result in better guidance and not because it would be less expensive.

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[41] See pages 50-52.

[42] See page 218.

The system of guidance which we find today is actually quite simple. But, because it involves a division of labor among most of the people on the school staffs, we shall need to define the functions of various staff members with some care.

Teachers of "Common Learnings" courses are responsible for the general counseling of all the students in their classes.[43] Each "Common Learnings" teacher normally advises from fifty to sixty students. In tenth grade, these teachers spend the two weeks prior to the opening of the school year in individual conferences with students—one hour or more to each student. Parents are asked to attend this first conference, and at least one of them usually does. There is time for a leisurely talk—with the pupil's personal history record as background—and by the end of the hour it is usually possible to agree on the program which the student will follow during the first high-school year. Some cases call for diagnostic testing or for further investigation of occupational requirements and opportunities. In such a case, a class adviser is called in, and these matters are promptly attended to. This same teacher continues to advise the student throughout the tenth grade on all matters relating to general educational plans and personal problems. The counselor keeps the student's personal history record and receives and records the reports from other staff members. All communications and contacts with parents clear through the counselor.

As soon as a student has chosen the course which he will follow (subject, of course, to later revision), he is assigned a vocational adviser. This is a teacher in the field of the student's vocational major[44] who advises him about his work in the field of vocational preparation and on questions which have to do with getting ready for employment and finding a job.[45] If the student later undertakes a work experience project, it is his vocational adviser who arranges and supervises this. College preparatory students have vocational advisers who are well informed about college and university education and conditions in the various professional fields. Since a student normally takes only one vocational course in tenth grade, his adviser and he have a full year to work out his plans for the later grades. A student normally has the same vocational adviser throughout high school.[46]

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[43] Teachers of "Common Learnings" classes will frequently be referred to as "counselors."

[44] The reader will recall that a "vocational major" may be a program preparatory to college or university, as well as a vocational program which may end with twelfth grade or community college.

Teachers of health and physical education, working with the school health officers and the teachers of "Common Learnings," furnish guidance in matters of health and hygiene.

There are three men and three women on the staff of each high school, well trained in counseling and school personnel administration, who give all their time to guidance. They are known as *class advisers.* Their duties are many, but may be described in a few words by saying that they do the things which teachers, for one reason or another, cannot do. Each class adviser is responsible for general oversight and coordination of guidance for all of the boys or all of the girls, as the case may be, in a grade—from 300 to 450 students for each class adviser. The number is far too large to permit the class adviser to give continuous personal attention to each student. That service is provided by teachers.

The class advisers assign students to "Common Learnings" classes, and assign the vocational advisers. Whenever a change of "Common Learnings" teacher or vocational adviser seems advisable, they arrange the change and supervise the transition.

Class advisers also take care of matters which require special services or large amounts of time. Here is a student, for example, whose problems call for diagnostic testing. The class adviser arranges for the tests and goes over the results with the student and his "Common Learnings" teacher. Here is a student who faces a difficult problem in the choice of an occupation. The "Common Learnings" teacher calls in the class adviser who arranges conferences, field trips, and reading, and confers with the student until a solution is reached. Here is a student who is experiencing difficulties in all his classes, which seem to grow out of some deep-seated personal maladjustments. The class adviser (working, as always, with the teachers concerned) takes time to explore the causes and work toward a solution. If necessary, he calls in the psychiatrist from the city school office.

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[45] Or, in the case of college preparatory students, getting ready for and entering an institution of higher education.

[46] If the student should later wish to change his vocational major, his case will be referred back to his counselor ("Common Learnings" teacher), who, of course, consults with everyone concerned—the student, his parents, and the vocational adviser.

The class advisers also have certain responsibilities for the school as a whole. Two of them (one man and one woman) are responsible for supplying teachers with the latest information about occupations and the employment situation.[47] Two more direct the part-time work program for students and, working with the city junior placement service, serve as placement officers for the school.[48] The other two, working with the central office of guidance and pupil personnel service, are responsible for the school's program of in-service education for teachers engaged in guidance.[49]

The counseling staff in any large city is inevitably beset by two difficulties—the difficulty of knowing one's students well as individuals, and the difficulty of obtaining reliable information regarding occupational opportunities and requirements. Without claiming to have overcome them completely, the American City schools have taken some constructive steps toward meeting these difficulties.

Knowing Students as Individuals. It is not easy to know one's students well in a large city school. The individual is apt to be lost in the crowd. The counselor cannot count on the informal contacts which occur so frequently in a smaller school. He must plan and schedule occasions for becoming acquainted with his students.

It is even more difficult to know the lives of youth away from school. When boys and girls leave the school building, they are swallowed up by the city. Counselors and teachers rarely see students and their parents in their homes and neighborhoods unless they plan to do so. John Sobieski lives only six blocks from the Lincoln High School. But when he has travelled those six blocks, he is farther removed from unplanned out-of-school contacts with his counselor and teachers than is John Roberts, who lives six miles from the Farmville Secondary School.

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[47] This information is made available through the city-school office of guidance and pupil personnel service. See page 273.

[48] See page 303.

[49] See pages 300-301.

The very factors which make it hard to know students individually make it imperative to know them. Many of the problems with which students most need help grow out of the fact that the school and city are large and complex. John Sobieski, aged sixteen, enters the Lincoln High School. In his mind are some reasonable questions. Why must he go to school until he finishes high school? What is this course on "Common Learnings" and why is he required to take it? Why can't he just take the courses he wants to take? Why should he choose a field of occupational study now, when he doesn't know what he wants to do? How can he know what he wants to do, when even experienced workers sometimes can't get jobs in the factories? How is he going to get a job to pay for his lunches and clothes? There *must* be people in this school who make it their business to know this boy, to help him to understand that the school is here to serve him, and to assist him to relate the program of the school to his own life and purposes. Otherwise, a large part of his schooling may be wasted; or, worse yet, the school itself may help to make him a rebel, a cynic, a sluggard, an escapist, or a chronic failure.

Counselors and teachers cannot know John Sobieski, or Richard Gordon, or Maria Martinelli, or Samuel Goldberg, if they know them only in school. The homes and neighborhoods of these boys and girls, their parents and their playmates, are shaping their conduct and their attitudes no less than the school.

Parents may be solicitous for their children's welfare and eager to cooperate with the school; or they may be so occupied with work or so engrossed with other interests that they leave the children to shift for themselves. They may be strong supporters of the new school program; they may view with suspicion any education that is different from their own; or they may be people without educational interests. They may desire that their children enjoy every possible advantage; or they may resent the compulsory attendance law which deprives them of a junior breadwinner. They may provide a home in which children find affection and security; or they may be at the point of disrupting their own homes.

So also with neighborhood influences. They may be constructive, destructive, a mixture of both, or merely neutral. Whatever they are, they must be understood by all who endeavor to help boys and girls.

Because it is hard to know students in American City and because it is necessary, the schools have provided both people and time for this purpose. Chiefly responsible, as we have seen, are the teachers of "Common Learnings." They have their students in classes for two hours a day throughout the year. They have time for personal conferences. They are able to see their students engage in many different types of work and under many different circumstances. Thus they can quickly become familiar with students' abilities and interests, their limitations and problems. Vocational advisers, too, have long and continuous contacts with their students.[50] A good part of a student's classwork in vocational preparation is done under his vocational adviser. After the period of rudimentary training, much of the work proceeds on small-group and individual schedules. Likewise, a student normally has the same teacher of health and physical education throughout high school, and his program is planned in the light of his particular needs and abilities. The "Common Learnings" teacher gathers all pertinent information from these and other sources and incorporates it in the student's personal history record, which is available to any teacher who may have occasion to consult it.

Counselors and teachers are no less diligent in gathering information about the homes and neighborhoods of the students whom they advise and teach. Tenth-grade "Common Learnings" teachers talk with parents at the time of the student's enrolment. Whenever it seems advisable, they call at the homes of students. Home economics teachers, too, make it a point to visit the homes of their students, especially those whose major is homemaking. Parents are always consulted about occupational choices and plans for occupational study; about the student's work experience project; and toward the end of twelfth grade, about the next step after graduation. Usually the parents come to the school, but if that cannot be arranged, the counselor goes to the home.

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[50] The vocational adviser is a teacher in the field of the student's vocational major. See pages 290-91.

As they visit, counselors and teachers note significant facts about neighborhoods as well as homes. As they talk with students, they inquire as to their memberships in clubs and churches and their other out-of-school interests. Such information is noted in the personal history record. Class advisers and "Common Learnings" teachers in each school help one another by pooling their information about neighborhoods, and sometimes families, as they meet in staff conferences. They are aided by large-scale sociological base maps of the area served by the school, prepared and kept up to date by students from the community college as a class project. Information which counselors and teachers gather in their visits is recorded on these maps. By consulting the maps for a few minutes, any counselor or teacher can learn many important facts about the neighborhood in which a student lives.

Knowing the Occupational Situation. Here in American City and its environs are hundreds of occupations. Most of them, to be sure, can be classified under the headings which we have used previously—manufacturing, trade, transportation, building and construction, personal services, professions, and government. But within each of these there are dozens of specific types of work.

Intelligent guidance requires reliable information regarding the number of people now employed and the number of new workers likely to be employed each year for specific types of work. As we have seen, there is no uniform trend or pattern for the various occupational fields. Each has its own characteristics. One must know not only the types of work, but the jobs available *for beginners.* Here the facts often run counter to the natural hopes and ambitions of boys and girls, for most beginners' jobs are at the bottom of the ladder.

To secure this information for the city and its surrounding region, to make it available to counselors and teachers in usable form, and to translate it to students so that it may guide them in making their decisions and plans has been a difficult task. An annual occupational survey by high-school students, such as we found at Farmville, would be quite impossible in American City.

Fortunately the schools have not had to work alone. We have already seen how the representative advisory committee on vocational education and the advisory committees for the various crafts supply information about needs for trained workers and the requirements for entering various occupations.[51] Similar committees have been formed to advise the schools about the professions, semiprofessional and service occupations, and employment in the field of management.

One of the chief concerns of the city planning commission and the various planning bodies associated with it has been to gather reliable information regarding employment, to forecast employment trends, and to develop new employment opportunities.[52] The schools have been associated with this enterprise from the beginning. The city planning commission maintains an occupational research bureau to gather and interpret the facts and forecasts from local, state, and national sources. The schools supply one member of the staff of this bureau, who gives special attention to the situation for beginning workers.

Associated with the planning commission is an occupational planning council, an organization representing employers, employees, the public employment service, the schools, and other civic interests. The purpose of the council is to plan for the maximum utilization of the human and natural resources of the city and its surrounding area, and to propose new developments, both private and public, to that end. The plans and forecasts of this council are also of great value to the schools.

One of the five specialists in the schools' central office of guidance and pupil personnel service is responsible for maintaining liaison with all occupational research and planning agencies in the community and for supplying the information from these agencies to counselors and teachers in form usable for guidance and instruction. The task of putting these reports into shape for educational purposes is of no small proportions. However, instead of setting up a headquarters staff to do this, the schools use committees of advisers and teachers who are released from part of their other duties.

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[51] See pages 286-87.

[52] See page 247.

Three types of materials are now furnished.[53] There are guides to occupations for use by students and their parents. These include the chief professional, semiprofessional, personal service, and public service occupations, as well as manufacturing, trade, transportation, and construction; they also give full recognition to homemaking as an occupation; and they deal with careers in the armed services for both men and women. They describe the specific types of work within each field; they supply information about beginners' jobs, the requirements for employment on these, and opportunities for advancement; and they include the most reliable information available about the present employment situation and the outlook for the future.

There are manuals of information for class advisers, vocational teachers, and "Common Learnings" teachers, similar in content to the students' guides, but containing more detailed information and statistical reports.

There are also resource units for use in the study of "American City at Work," which, we recall, is a part of the tenth-grade "Common Learnings" course. In these resource units much attention is given to the interrelations and interdependence of the various economic activities of the city and region, to the study of trends and outlooks, and to the roles of community, state, and national planning.

Aided by these materials, and by the field trips, motion pictures, and class conferences of the "American City at Work" study, the counselors have found it possible to guide most of their students to reasonably intelligent tentative choices of occupational fields by the middle of the tenth grade or earlier, and to start them on courses of occupational preparation. Many students change their plans, once, twice, even more times. But it is believed that it is far better for a student to be working toward a tentative occupational goal from his first year in high school onward, than for him to have no vocational purpose whatever.

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[53] All materials are in loose-leaf form, to permit revision as often as necessary.

Guidance in the Community College. Guidance for students in the community college presents some peculiar problems and calls for a higher degree of specialization of functions than we found in high school. The general arrangements are substantially the same as those of the high schools with "Common Learnings" teachers serving as general counselors and vocational advisers supplying guidance and supervision to students majoring in their respective fields. The full-time advisers, however—one to each 300 students—are no longer attached to classes but serve the institution as a whole.

The community college advisers must be familiar with the details of a large number of occupations. Over thirty occupational fields are represented in the community college curriculum, and for at least a dozen more the college offers preprofessional courses. Some division of labor is therefore necessary, and each adviser specializes in one or more groups of related occupations while keeping generally informed about all.

Community college advisers must arrange work experience projects for some 1700 students each year as compared with 800 for the three high schools together.[54] As nearly as possible, they must suit these experiences to the educational and occupational plans of students in thirty or more vocational fields. This, too, calls for some division of labor and specialization.

Community college advisers must deal with the special problems of the 500 new students each year, whose homes are outside the city-and-suburban area. Most of these youth require some orientation to the city and its occupations. More important still, they must be helped to make the personal adjustments which accompany the move to the city—to find new friends and satisfying social life and often to find work to meet the costs of living away from home.

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[54] In cooperation, of course, with the vocational teachers or "coordinators" who supervise work experience.

Community college advisers must maintain close contacts with the twelve schools, such as the school at Farmville, which send high school graduates to American City for training in industrial and urban occupations. They go out to these schools to consult with twelfth-grade students who are interested in urban occupations, and they arrange and accompany the visits which students from the "feeder" schools make to the city.

Community college advisers must gauge the supply of trained youth to employment opportunities more accurately than is necessary in high school because of the greater specialization of training in the college. They must also study specific abilities and aptitudes of students with care, for these become increasingly significant as students move into advanced training in technical, semiprofessional, and professional fields.

Before we leave the community college, we must record its service to those youth who go to work directly from high school and those who come to the city from other communities to find work. The number of such youth varies between 500 and 700 annually.[55] Most of them begin work at the bottom of the occupational ladder on jobs in which advancement comes slowly. As compared with those who go to community college or into apprenticeship, they are more apt to become dissatisfied or discouraged, more likely to be discharged when workers have to be laid off. It is at this time, too, that many of these young people marry, or aspire to marry. For many, perhaps most of this group, this is the year of all years in which wise and friendly counseling is needed, and with it the invitation to use the resources of the schools' program of part-time and evening classes. That is why the community college has four counselors on its staff who give most of their time to out-of-school youth during their first year on the job.

Central Office of Guidance and Pupil Personnel Service. As far as possible, the responsibility for guidance lies with the staffs of the several schools. Some things, however, must be done for the city as a whole. To do these, the school system maintains a central office of guidance and pupil personnel service within the division of curriculum. We have already made the acquaintance of the member of its staff who is responsible for information regarding occupational opportunities and trends and for liaison with all occupational planning groups. Another is responsible for general administration of funds for student aid and for the school's share of the operation of the junior placement service. The chief duties of a third are to work with groups of teachers and counselors in developing programs of in-service training in counseling procedures and mental hygiene and to arrange for intensive training courses in professional schools. A fourth member is a psychiatrist who is available to the schools for assistance in dealing with students who show evidences of serious maladjustments. The fifth, who serves elementary as well as secondary schools, has general supervision of personnel records and maintains liaison with the measurement and testing program of the bureau of educational research.

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[55] In addition, about 900 American City youth each year leave full-time school on the completion of twelfth grade or on reaching the eighteenth birthday.

How the Schools Developed Personnel for Guidance. Where did the American City schools get their teachers of "Common Learnings," their class advisers, and the other teachers who share in the program of guidance? Where did these people come from? What were they doing five years ago? What has happened to them to make them suddenly competent to counsel the youth of the city?

The schools began with the people they already had—the boys' and girls' advisers and the many principals and teachers who were already deeply interested in guidance. Indeed, it was these people more than any others who were responsible for the inclusion of guidance among the essentials of the new educational program. They became the nucleus of the expanding guidance staff. The school system helped them to do the one thing they needed most—to grow. It provided the funds for summer workshops and week-end conferences and supplied competent leadership in the central office to aid them with a continuous in-service program of training.

The schools also brought in some experienced counselors and personnel workers from other fields. Back from the Army and Navy came men and women with good training and several years of experience in personnel work. Others gained comparable experience in the educational program for veterans. The schools needed them, and many were glad for the opportunity to continue in that profession.

These were not enough, however, and the schools turned to a third source. They called upon the teachers colleges and schools of education to provide intensive courses in guidance, mental hygiene, and personnel procedures, and to these they sent some of their most promising teachers at school expense. This was a beginning, and the development of these people continues through the in-service program of teacher education.

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This guidance service is far from perfect. There are shortcomings in personnel, inadequacies in procedures, and problems to which no one yet knows the best answers. The reader has doubtless detected many of these. If so, we remind him that the educators of American City did not shrink from undertaking to do a great and necessary task in a very short time and that they are even now engaged in trying to do it better.

2. *Individualized Programs and Records of Progress*

The efforts of American City educators to suit education to individual needs were facilitated in more ways than one by the changes in methods of measuring, evaluating, and recording educational progress. The story of these changes has already been related in Chapter 4 on Farmville, and need not be repeated here.[56] Suffice it to say that American City is using the same personal history record as Farmville and similar methods of measuring, evaluating, and recording achievements and progress and that these have replaced the former system of records, credits, and grades.[57] Placement officers and prospective employers have found the newer methods far more

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[56] See pages 60-61, 63-65.

[57] See page 351. This personal history record was developed jointly by the state department of education and a committee of educators from the public schools and schools of education, with advice from national agencies. Its use is optional but is recommended in order to assure continuity of records when a student moves from one school district to another. Most of the districts in the state are now using it.

LOUISE F. DENNEY

useful than the old. The report of grades and credits alone, they say, gave them at best a static picture of the student's intellect and little more. It showed that the student was bright, dull, average, or variable among subjects. The personal history record, when compiled by competent counselors and teachers, comes close to giving them a picture of the *whole student in action.* And that is what an employer wants. In some colleges and universities the personal history record is also accepted as a basis for admission. For students seeking entrance to higher institutions which still require the traditional report of grades and credits, American City schools provide them.

The changes just noted have removed the chief obstacles to the development of inclusive courses in "Common Learnings," to the making of programs and schedules suited to individual abilities and needs, to the adaptation of work within courses to differences among students, and to the inclusion of occupational training and work experience as parts of the educational programs of all students.

They have also been an important factor in reducing retardation. Most students now move ahead with their classes on programs suited to their abilities, and those whose work falls below their capacities are dealt with through remedial classes, individual instruction, and counseling, rather than by the inefficient method of requiring them to repeat whole grades or courses.

3. *Meeting the Problems of Money for Personal Expenses*

"A public requirement that all youth must remain in school through high school carries with it a public obligation to provide all youth with means of earning the money which they need for personal expenses." These words, from a statement by the superintendent of the American City public schools, well express the viewpoint of the entire school staff.

The general principles governing student aid through part-time employment differ but little from those worked out by the Farmville staff and need not be repeated.[58] But the application of these principles involves some practical problems not encountered in the smaller community.

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[58] See pages 160-64.

In Farmville, only 300 students needed the income from part-time jobs. In American City, the number is around 4000. In Farmville, the counselors were personally acquainted with all the employers, knew the jobs and conditions of work. In American City, many of the private employers are unknown to the school staff and must be investigated lest students be exploited. In Farmville, students worked near their homes. In American City, the largest number of students who need work live in the Lincoln High School area while most of the jobs are either in the business section or in other parts of the city. Then there has been the problem of scheduling schoolwork and employment, the solution to which we shall note in a few moments.

Obviously it was necessary to centralize the functions of locating jobs, listing calls for work, investigating employers and employment conditions, and placing the students. These tasks could not possibly be performed by dozens of advisers and teachers working in four different schools.

Again the schools have been aided greatly by other agencies. The schools and the public employment service together operate a junior placement service to which are referred all calls for work that can be done by youth in high school or community college. This service is also responsible for locating work opportunities for youth with both private and public employers and for making investigations of working conditions. In each high school and in the community college, there are advisers who act as local representatives of the junior placement service. As far as possible, students are placed in jobs related to their occupational interests.

The 4000 jobs for students are the equivalent of about 1500 full-time jobs. If there were a shortage of work for adults, these jobs would go far toward relieving the situation. One of the questions considered long and seriously by the city occupational planning council was whether adults should have first claim on *all* jobs whenever there is a labor surplus or whether some jobs should be open to youth or even reserved for youth in times of general unemployment.

Some pointed out that national defense and economic welfare required young men and women with both technical training and good general education. They offered impressive estimates of the losses which the nation would suffer if young people in their teens should be allowed to drop out of school for lack of money at the very time when they were ready to be trained to be more productive workers and more efficient in the service of national defense.

Others showed that if a public works program became necessary to give work to the unemployed, the developments which were most needed would require a large proportion of skilled or experienced workers. It would be better, they said, to put unemployed adults to work at regular wages on the public works we most need than to shape public works to suit a low-paid labor force of inexperienced youth.

The outcome was that the occupational planning council—which includes representatives of the larger employers' associations—recommended to the employers of the city that they reserve certain beginners' jobs for youth attending high school and community college. Only after all the possibilities of private employment had been exhausted, they said, should public aid be called for.

The school system vigorously applied to itself the recommendations of the occupational planning council. Several hundred new paying jobs for students have been developed in the schools—as assistants to teachers in laboratories, shops, and classes; as custodial assistants; as caretakers of grounds; and as workers in school offices, mimeographing rooms, lunchrooms, libraries, and the printing shop. Students in metal, machine, and woodworking shops are employed to make and repair equipment for the schools. The residence halls for out-of-city community college students are now operated almost wholly by student employees.

The city planning commission and its associated groups have also supplied considerable employment. Students become familiar with the work of the planning bodies during high school. Community college classes frequently undertake investigations for one or another of the planning groups as class projects. Many college students are, therefore, well prepared to go into the planning offices and work on statistical studies, map-making, and drafting. Most of the "rush" jobs are done by students, and there are a number of full-time jobs held jointly by two students. The libraries, the city recreation department, and other public agencies also help.

4. *Adjusting Time Schedules to Individuals*

All this development of student employment and of work experience as a part of education has necessitated radical changes in the length of the school day and in the scheduling of classes.

Much of the part-time work for expense money can be done outside the hours of the traditional school day—not all, however, for most of this work is in private employment and students have to work when they are needed. Some of the best part-time jobs for community college students come during the business day.

The problem of scheduling arises more often in connection with the work experience projects.[59] Most of these jobs call for work during the business day and in blocks of time of four hours or more. Two students frequently fill one full-time job, and in some cases a student may work full time over several months.

The educators of American City had to face a difficult choice. They could say, "School is in session from 8:30 a.m. to 3:30 p.m. Those students who work will either have to schedule their work outside these hours or miss a part of their educational program, however important that may be." Or they could decide, "Since work is considered necessary for practically all our students and since some of this work must be done during the hours of the traditional school day, we will change the hours of the school day to make it possible for all students to enjoy the same educational opportunities."

They chose the latter alternative, and the school day in senior high schools and community college now runs from 8:00 a.m. to 10:00 p.m. Most classes are still scheduled between 8:00 a.m. and

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[59] Most work experience projects are means of earning money for personal expenses. But only a part of the part-time work for personal expenses can meet the requirements of a "supervised experience of productive work under employment conditions."

4:00 p.m. All the tenth-grade classes come in these hours. In eleventh grade, there are evening classes in "Common Learnings" and in health and physical education.[60] In twelfth grade and community college, there are evening classes in practically all the courses of the day school save only the elective courses with small enrolments. Since the schools would be open in the evenings for classes for adults and employed youth, the additional expense of the fourteen-hour school day is not great.[61]

The American City schools are also experimenting with a *summer term* of ten weeks. This has already yielded some promising developments, for some types of work experience are possible in the summer which could not easily be arranged during the regular school year. For example, last summer three groups of students, each with its instructor, worked on construction and conservation jobs in state parks, and two other groups, each likewise accompanied by a teacher, worked in truck farming areas where there was a labor shortage during the harvesting season.

One high school now operates through the summer. It offers eleventh- and twelfth-grade courses in "Common Learnings" and in most of the vocations for students who have unusual work schedules during the regular year. It offers electives in the sciences, mathematics, languages, literature, social studies, and the arts for students who want additional work in these fields. Its health and physical education activities are expanded in a summer recreational program. And it also provides instruction in the basic skills of English language and mathematics for students who feel the need of strengthening these abilities. At the high-school level, the summer term is thought of, not as a device for acceleration, but as a means of enlarging the educational experiences of those who choose to use this time for learning.

The summer term in the community college, however, may be used for acceleration by those who so desire. Here a student will find courses in practically all the fields of instruction of the regular school year.

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[60] "Evening" includes all classes held between 4:00 p.m. and 10:00 p.m.

[61] There is no separation between "day high school" and "evening high school." The same principal, assistant principal, teachers, and counselors constitute the staff of the school from 8:00 a.m. to 10:00 p.m., and their hours of work are distributed over the longer day. No one, of course, is expected to work continuously for fourteen hours. Evening classes for adults, held in high-school buildings, are part of the program of the community college, which is responsible for adult education throughout the city.

The American City School Camp. Out of the summer program has developed the American City School Camp on Lake Winnewawa, thirty miles distant. This camp, started four years ago as an experiment in using the summer months for educational purposes, has now become a year-round institution.

The educational values of camp experience have long been recognized. Leaders in the development of camps, of whom there were a number in American City, have pointed out that the camp offers unique opportunities for children and youth to learn about health, group life, self-government, and the obligations of the individual to the community. They have demonstrated the possibilities of camp life for instruction in geography and science, for nature study, and for a wide variety of recreational activities. In some cases, too, they have shown that an unusually effective program of parent education can be developed around children's camping experiences. Yet, until recently, camping was largely a private matter limited to those children and youth whose parents were able and willing to pay the costs of attendance at private camps and to a few children from lower-income families who attended camps maintained by welfare agencies.

The members of the Commission on American City Education became convinced that every boy and girl should have the opportunity to attend a camp at least once during his school years as a part of his school program. As a first step in this direction, they recommended that the school system lease a well-equipped camp, employ a competent staff, and operate the camp for one summer as an experiment. A camp with accommodations for 125 was secured. Boys and girls of various age groups were taken to camp for two-week periods through a twelve-week season—750 in all, during the summer. During this first season, one requirement for attendance was that the parents of each child should attend a series of precamp conferences and visit the camp once while their child was there. The bureau of educational research endeavored to appraise the results of the experiment. On the whole, the reactions were decidedly favorable on the part of campers, their parents, and the teachers who had been members of the camp staff. A second summer yielded even more favorable outcomes.

But the problem had not yet been solved as to how to provide at least one camping experience for every pupil. To do that in the summers alone would have required camps with a capacity of 400. The cost of land, buildings, and equipment would have been excessive for only twelve weeks of use each year. The commission therefore proposed that the school system operate its camp for twelve months instead of twelve weeks. Smaller school systems had already shown that year-round camps were both feasible and educationally productive. The only obstacles to a similar program for American City were those of size and cost.

The Citizens' Advisory Council proved very helpful in sounding public opinion and in interpreting the true educational significance of the proposal. Warm support was found among most of those familiar with the first two summer camps. In the end, the board of education decided to approve the plan for a year-round camp, still, however, on an experimental basis. This is its second year.

Entire classes go to camp together, each class accompanied by its teacher (in the case of a high-school class, by the "Common Learnings" teacher). A year-round camp staff has been selected with great care—counselors, instructors, business manager, nurse, and cooks. Students do practically all the work of the camp save cooking, and each camping group makes its contribution to the permanent improvement of the camping property. Educational and recreational programs have been developed for the fall, winter, and spring which are proving quite as valuable as those of the summer. Parent education continues to be an integral part of the camp program. Parents' participation is now voluntary, but, thanks to cooperation from the PTA's and to the good work of the camp staff, over 70 percent of the parents of children in camp last year took part in the educational activities for parents.

Under efficient management, it has been found that the total cost of operating the camp (including parent education and administrative costs in the central office) is around $2.50 per day per child.

In other words, the two-week camping experience is costing the American City school district only $35 for each pupil—and the returns are amply justifying the investment.

One important question which remains to be settled is this: Should the camping experience come at about the same time for all pupils—say in ninth or tenth grade—or should it come in different grades for different pupils? No clear answer has yet appeared. The schools are still experimenting with groups all the way from fifth grade to twelfth. Another question has often been asked: Is the two-week camping period long enough? To this question there is an almost unanimous answer of "No." Four weeks, it is generally agreed, would yield larger educational results per day and per dollar. But a four-week period will require a camp with a capacity of at least two hundred as well as a doubling of the operating expenditures, and it may be a few years before the additional funds become available.

5. *Special Opportunities for the Gifted*

The strong sense of social responsibility which one finds in the American City schools is expressed again in the schools' concern for students with superior abilities. One who lives in these fateful years of national and world readjustment can hardly fail to reflect that the problems which people are now called on to solve threaten to outstrip the capacities of human intelligence. Never in history has the world so needed the full development of the talents of those most gifted by nature.[62]

The opportunities for students of unusual abilities are largely the product of skilful teaching, particularly in "Common Learnings" and in college preparatory and vocational courses. Here the teachers are certainly aware of a need, and by dint of much effort they are making themselves competent to meet that need. Within each class, student's work is planned and scheduled so that each one may work at a rate consistent with his abilities. Within the class purposes, each student is helped to set up individual goals of achievement and individual plans for progressing toward these goals. Small-group and individual projects are frequently used. Mastery of all essential knowledge and skills is stressed. Students are supplied with all sorts of objective tests of achievement which they can apply to themselves. Every student is made to feel, if possible, that he is engaged in a keen competition—not with his fellows, but with his own potential achievements.

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[62] See: National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission. *Education of the Gifted.* Washington, D. C.: the Commission, 1950.

The high schools have not attempted to accelerate their gifted students but rather to broaden and enrich their learning. There is so much which everyone should learn as a part of his general equipment for life that early acceleration toward specialized training can hardly be justified.

6. *Special Services for the Handicapped*

In any community, small or large, there are some children and youth who are blind, deaf, crippled, or sufferers from chronic diseases, and there are some who are handicapped by low ability to learn. Opportunities for education are not equal unless the needs of these have been met as nearly as it is possible to do so.

Some of the handicapped are away from American City in custodial institutions or enrolled in residential schools. Very few, however, are to be found away from home—not more than 1 percent of all of American City's handicapped youth. Nearly all of those who are in such special schools or institutions have been there since childhood.

Another small portion of handicapped youth are confined to their homes—a few permanently, others during long periods of treatment and convalescence. For those the schools supply home teachers.

The great majority are able to attend the regular schools if suitable services are provided for them. In American City, these services commence when the child first enters school, but here we shall refer only to those of the upper secondary schools.

First, the physically handicapped[63] —the blind, the partially seeing, the hard of hearing, the severely crippled, and those who suffer from serious heart ailments—are all transported by bus to the Jefferson High School.[61] This school is equipped with an elevator, a Braille library, a specially lighted study room for the partially seeing, head phones in the auditorium for the hard of hearing, and a small gymnasium with equipment and apparatus suited to the crippled.

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[63] See: Hoyer, Louis P., and Hay, Charles K. *Services to the Orthopedically Handicapped.* Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Board of Education, 1942. 115 p.

Individual instruction in Braille, begun in elementary school, is continued by the school system's Braille teacher. There is comparable service in lip-reading for the deaf and the hard-of-hearing. Student assistants are employed to read to the blind. Rest periods and special feeding are provided for those who need these services.

Counselors assist handicapped youth in their studies and in other aspects of adjustment to school. But such students typically spend most of their school day with other students in regular classes. Counselors of these students help these teachers to know their special problems and needs.

Handicapped students take the courses in "Common Learnings" and in vocations within the limits of their abilities. Avocational interests—especially in manual arts and music—are particularly encouraged because of their value for the mental health of those who cannot be as active as their fellows.

Students with speech handicaps are treated somewhat differently. They usually attend regular classes and receive remedial treatment from a specialist in speech defects attached to the city staff. This specialist also advises the teachers and parents concerned so that experiences in classes and at home may support the remedial program.

With the mentally handicapped, problems are more difficult. Here also, however, the schools follow the policy of minimizing segregation. These youth, it is held, have the same needs as others. They too will work, earn money, spend their earnings, be members of families, be in good or ill health, vote in elections, be members of instruction by his assistant sometimes clears up the difficulty. If it does not, the teacher reports the need to the class adviser who arranges for attendance at a remedial class for as long as may be necessary to bring the student to the place where he can profit from regular classwork.

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[61] In Jefferson High School this year there are four blind children, eleven partially seeing, three deaf, twenty-three hard of hearing, sixty-seven crippled, and forty-one with serious cardiac defects—a total of one hundred and forty-nine.

7. *Continuing Services after Youth Leave Full-Time School*

The schools' responsibility does not end when a youth leaves high school or community college. Young people often encounter some of their most urgent and perplexing problems during the first year or two after they leave full-time school. No counselor in American City will place a student's name in the "inactive" file until he knows that the young man or woman is making satisfactory progress at the next stage of his career—whether it be on a job, in an institution of higher education, or in the home.

The community college, through its adult education division, offers free evening courses designed particularly for young people in their early twenties—courses in a wide variety of vocational fields—in homemaking, child care, and family relations; in business management and labor leadership; in public affairs and avocational interests. Over 40 percent of those who leave high school at the end of the compulsory attendance period enrol in one or more of these courses during the next five years.

These continuing services are supplied not only to the youth of American City, but also to hundreds of young men and women from towns, villages, and farms who annually move to the city in search of work and opportunity. There is also a steady incoming stream of young men who have completed service periods in the armed forces and are returning to civilian life. One of the schools' counselors for out-of-school youth specializes in guidance for men returning from the armed services, and former service men may enrol in either the regular program of the community college or in part-time and evening classes for adults.

So we conclude this report. We have told of the ways in which youth education in American City has changed in recent years. We have related the story of how those changes were brought about. We have described the main features of the curriculum in the three high schools and the community college: the courses in "Common Learnings" and science, the program of health and physical education, the preparation for employment and for advanced study in universities and colleges, and the provisions for students to develop their personal interests. We have told how the program of these institutions is focused upon the particular needs of their thousands of individual students through guidance, flexible schedules and programs, financial aid to students, special opportunities for the gifted, special provisions for the handicapped, and services following the youth from school into adult life. These things we have seen. But we have seen something more.

We have seen that the people of American City—any American city—have within and among themselves the resources for building the educational program for youth which the times demand. We have seen that great advances can be made in a remarkably short time when people resolutely set their minds and hearts to the task. We have seen that the processes through which these advances have come are sound, for they are the processes of democracy, making full use of leadership, yet enlisting widespread participation among the rank and file of the people. We see now that these processes are still in full operation, that the earnest desire to progress has been nourished by each experience of growth, and that each new step forward has yielded a vision of other steps yet to be taken. So we may look to the future with confidence and be sure that the schools will continue to grow in service to all American youth.

CHAPTER 9

A STATE SYSTEM OF YOUTH EDUCATION

FARMVILLE AND AMERICAN CITY would have developed good schools in any state. Educators like George Carlisle, Myron Evans, and their colleagues, and citizens like the dozens of unnamed men and women whose deeds have been chronicled in the last two chapters could be counted on to produce creditable results under any state system of education. But the schools of Farmville and American City are *far better* than they might otherwise be because they are located in the state of Columbia.

This state, in the course of the past seven years, has made a number of notable improvements in its state educational system and now has a system which gives strong, intelligent leadership and financial support to the local school districts and shares with them the responsibility for providing adequate education to all the young people of the state. A complete description of the state educational system would require a separate volume. In this chapter, we shall sketch briefly those features of the system which are most relevant to the education of youth.

With a few minor exceptions, the state of Columbia does not itself operate educational programs for youth. That responsibility is delegated by the state to local school districts. The state, however, does determine many of the important conditions under which the local programs are operated. It decides the form of organization and control of the public-school system. It defines the minimum acceptable program of public education and minimum standards for the certification of teachers, for school attendance, and for school buildings and equipment. It determines the system of financial support of public education and provides state funds to the end that all youth in the state may have access to an acceptable minimum of educational opportunity. It supplies professional leadership and counsel to local districts and to institutions for the education of teachers through the staff of the state department of education. It coordinates services which are statewide in character, such as guidance for youth and vocational education beyond the high-school level. These services of the state, all essential to the operation of effective local programs, are the subjects of the present chapter.

When, as the end of World War II approached, the people of Farmville and American City and dozens of other cities, towns, and villages in Columbia began to awaken to the need for more adequate programs of youth education, they soon found that some fundamental revisions in the state system of public education were greatly needed. Archaic practices, the results of tradition as well as of laws passed years ago, were entirely too numerous. Laws, regulations, and practices which had been reasonably satisfactory a decade or two earlier now needed to be re-examined in the light of new conditions. Two striking examples were the law placing the end of the compulsory school attendance period at the sixteenth birthday and the law setting an upper limit on secondary education at the end of the twelfth grade.

A preliminary investigation of the state's educational system brought to light a large number of problems most of which centered around educational finance, administration, and curriculum. The conclusion was reached that legislation should be passed which would not only supply adequate financial support to the schools, but which would also stimulate the communities so to develop their schools as to insure excellent educational opportunities to all children and youth.

Organizing a Legislative Program

The first task was to organize the forces of the state so as to bring a clear statement of needs and remedial measures before the people and the legislature. It happened that an interim committee on education had recently been set up by the state legislature, largely as a result of suggestions by the chief state school officer and officials of the state teachers' association. This committee, with some changes in personnel, was continued through several sessions. To it had been assigned the general task of examining the public schools to determine their merits and defects and of proposing legislation designed to insure the greatest returns for money invested in education. The committee soon called in public-school administrators for conferences. At first, of course, there were some disagreements. But the members of the legislative committee and the school officials soon found common ground in their belief that the state was financially able to support good schools and that it should do so. Members of the legislative committee became convinced that if the schools were adequately to perform their duties they must have more funds. They arrived at this conclusion when they comprehended the scope of the enlarged program of public education which would be required in the coming years. They were influenced, too, by the effectiveness of some of the educational programs carried on by the military forces with practically unlimited funds at their disposal. Without aspiring to equal the per capita educational expenditures of the armed forces, they agreed that substantial increases in amounts allocated to the schools were necessary. They also agreed that differences among the districts in ability to finance schools should be removed and that legislation to that end should be passed. Having reached these conclusions, both groups set about informing the public and developing legislation. The chief state school officer, we should add, worked closely with the legislative committee and was an important factor in influencing the legislators and the school officials to make common cause.

The school administrators turned for support to a number of influential state educational organizations. Chief among these was the state teachers' association which had become a powerful body in promoting legislation for the welfare of children and youth. This organization was highly effective in publicizing the need for a new system of school finance including both elementary and secondary education.

The state secondary-school principals' association and the association of public-school superintendents also gave invaluable assistance. Several years previously the principals' association had developed a statewide organization which included a large number of local groups. Any secondary-school principal who belonged to the association was also a member of one of the local groups. Thereafter it had been the custom for representatives of the local groups to meet at the beginning of each school year to prepare a statement of issues and problems for consideration and discussion during the year. Each local group then met monthly throughout the year, building its program around the issues defined at the conference of representatives. The culminating event was an annual conference of secondary-school administrators at which the results of the year's work were summarized and the main problems were considered by the entire association. Because of their close ties with parents' organizations and with other groups of citizens interested in high-school youth, the secondary-school principals proved very effective in reaching the general public.

The superintendents' association was equally well suited to this enterprise and was equally potent in its influence. It also had been organized into local groups for the purpose of promoting the welfare of the schools. It also held an annual conference at which problems of general concern to school administrators were considered.

Upon the initiative of the chief state school officer and the state teachers' association, the Columbia State Educational Council had been organized during the war to confer with and to advise the state department of education on educational policy. The council included representatives of the important state educational organizations, the association of school trustees, the state congress of parents and teachers, farmers' organizations, labor unions, the state chamber of commerce, taxpayers' associations, the League of Women Voters, and other similar bodies. This council now helped to develop plans for legislation, informed the public, and prepared to support necessary changes in the school law.

In 1944, the governor of Columbia appointed a committee on postwar planning, consisting of fifteen members—seven prominent citizens and eight heads of divisions of the state government. A staff was placed at the disposal of the committee to carry on research and fact-finding, to keep in touch with local committees of the same character, and to develop a state plan for the postwar period. The chief state school officer was a member of this committee and was chairman of the subcommittee on education.

Main Points in the Legislative Program

Complete agreement among so many committees and organizations was hardly to be expected. There was, however, substantial agreement on the main points of the program which were deemed essential.

The eight main points in this program were:

1. A state school finance system which would support an acceptable minimum program of education, available to all children and youth in the state, regardless of district of residence.
2. Consolidation of small, weak school districts into larger, more effective units.
3. Raising of the upper-age limit for compulsory school attendance to the eighteenth birthday or graduation from high school.
4. Extension of the state system of free public education upward to include general and vocational education in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades.
5. Free public education, both vocational and general, in part-time and evening classes for adults and youth who are no longer in full-time attendance at schools.
6. A state board of education, free from partisan political attachments, as a policy-making body.
7. A strong state department of education, likewise removed from partisan political influence, with a professional staff competent to provide a high order of leadership in education throughout the state.
8. A coordinated system of guidance and initial placement, under the public-school system, suited to meet the problems growing out of youth migrations.

We shall not attempt to follow the fortunes of the various legislative measures. Rather, we shall turn at once to the results of this program of legislative action and describe the state system of youth education in Columbia as we find it today. The description will be organized under the eight points listed above.

Practically every member of the state educational council was familiar with the state system of school finance. It was well known that the districts in the state of Columbia varied greatly in their ability to support education. For those unacquainted with the situation, data were plentiful and incontrovertible. It could be shown repeatedly that a given tax rate in some districts would produce only a small fraction of the amount of money per child that the same tax rate would raise in other districts. Contrasts were striking between districts containing much low-priced grazing land and districts which contained concentrations of business establishments, industrial enterprises, or natural resources. The most important task before the state educational planning bodies thus became the formulation of a system of educational finance which would enable all the local districts to maintain good schools.

It soon became apparent that the amount supplied by the state to the districts for the support of education must be greatly increased. There had been some state funds, but they had given only small assistance. In order to develop a state school finance system which would equalize educational opportunity throughout the state, five steps were taken.

First, *an acceptable minimum educational program was defined for which the state guaranteed support by means of state aid plus a required local contribution.* This minimum program went well beyond the current practices in the education of youth, since these were deemed inadequate. In particular, it provided for secondary education through the fourteenth grade and for enlargement of guidance services throughout the secondary schools.

Second, *the cost of the acceptable minimum program was calculated.*[1] Current cost of education, exclusive of transportation, in communities of average wealth was used as the base to which were added the estimated costs of new or enlarged educational services in the upper secondary years. Costs per pupil were calculated for each of four levels: elementary (through Grade VI), lower secondary (Grades VII-IX), middle secondary (Grades X-XII), and advanced secondary (Grades XIII-XIV).

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[1] Under the proposed new program, it was necessary to calculate costs separately for each of three levels within the secondary period. The enlargement of guidance services, of vocational education, and of the "work experience" program caused the cost of education in Grades X through XII to be considerably above that in Grades VII and IX. At the level of Grades XIII and XIV, the cost was further increased by the introduction of a large number of specialized courses in vocational, technical, and semiprofessional fields.

Third, *the need of each local administrative area for support of the minimum program was calculated on the basis of the number of units of thirty pupils to be supported.* After World War II, these "local need" figures rose sharply. Raising the age for compulsory school attendance and the development of free public education in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades caused increased enrolments in nearly every district.

Fourth, *the ability of each local district to provide funds for the maintenance of schools was calculated by the application of a common minimum tax rate to equalize assessments of property throughout the state.*

Fifth, *the state legislature appropriated sufficient funds to pay to each district the difference between its need for support of the minimum program and its ability to provide funds as calculated in the manner just described.*

In addition, the state provided funds to cover all costs of transportation, both in rural areas and in cities, in all cases in which need for transportation was demonstrated in accordance with the law and the regulations of the state department of education. As we shall see later, state funds were also supplied for the building of student residence halls and for a part of the cost of constructing and equipping build[illegible]s for community colleges and, in newly consolidated districts, for e[illegible]mentary and high schools.

Under this system, each local district was free to develop its educational program beyond the minimum acceptable program required by the state and was encouraged to do so. In computing the ability of the districts to support education a relatively low minimum tax rate was employed. The maximum tax rate for school support, prescribed by state law, was much higher. Between the minimum and the maximum tax rates lay a wide area within which any local district might levy additional taxes for the support of educational services exceeding the state's minimum program. The schools described in the Farmville and American City districts illustrate the freedom of action and flexibility of program which are possible.

In a word, the state of Columbia adopted a state school finance system which equalized the tax burden between districts for a minimum educational program and provided ample latitude for each district to develop a maximum program in accordance with its resources and the vision and judgment of its citizens.

REORGANIZATION OF SCHOOL DISTRICTS

In the course of these studies and discussions of the school finance system, most of the members of the planning groups became convinced that school-district reorganization must accompany, if not precede, efforts to establish a sound school finance structure. It was pointed out that many existing school districts, having been formed years ago to meet needs and conditions that no longer prevail, are limited in population and in territorial extent. It was shown that these districts cannot provide the educational facilities and services necessary in modern society without unreasonable per capita expenditures. Many people questioned the wisdom of any school finance system which would perpetuate small districts that could be eliminated through district reorganization. It was therefore proposed that the number of small districts be reduced, thereby permitting stronger local tax bases, schools with larger numbers of teachers and pupils and more comprehensive curriculums. School officials and representatives of the state congress of parents and teachers, familiar with the prevailing unsatisfactory situation in many small school districts, were foremost among the supporters of these proposals. Representatives of most other groups soon came to share their convictions on the subject.

An examination of the school laws showed that provisions for effecting the consolidation of school districts already existed. Why, then, had the accomplishments under this law been so meager? Were those consolidated districts, which had already been established, satisfactory as taxation and administrative units? These and similar questions called for answers. Studies revealed that the chief deterrents to consolidation were (a) the lack of public recognition of the urgent need for improvement in the school-district system, (b) the failure of the laws to fix the responsibility for preparing school-district improvement plans for submission to the people, and (c) the unwillingness of residents of local districts to vote for consolidation proposals, an unwillingness often grounded on sentiment or on a desire to retain some financial advantage inherent in the existing situation. Investigations also showed that consolidation under the existing law had done little to equalize per capita valuation and local district tax rates because wealthy districts tended to consolidate among themselves, while poor districts merged their poverty or retained their original status.

Because of the limited accomplishments under the existing law, a new law was enacted, establishing new procedures for effecting a reorganization of the school districts of the state. This law provided for (a) the creation of a school-district planning committee in each county, charged with the responsibility of preparing plans for changes in the school-district organization of the county, (b) the review and approval of such plans by a state committee also created by the act, and (c) the submission of an approved plan to a vote of the electors of the proposed new district with voting at large and not by the individual districts comprised within the new district. The county committee was to be chosen by the members of the boards of education in the county, the state committee by the state board of education.

Because of the experiences of other states with subsidies, especially for buildings and transportation, a financial stimulus to consolidation was immediately suggested. A state capital outlay fund was therefore established from which was supplied half the cost of erecting the buildings needed in newly consolidated districts. This assistance was to be given only to districts in which acceptable administrative units had been established and only when plans for consolidation had been approved by the state department of education. Such approval was regarded as necessary in order to prohibit undesir-

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able consolidations. It was the consensus, however, that, as a long-range policy, local districts should be responsible for their own building programs, as well as for the operation of schools, subject only to such standards as might be contained in the school law and regulations of the state board of education.

It was also decided that the state should pay all the costs of purchasing buses and operating them in all districts, rural and urban, when needs for transportation were demonstrated in accordance with state law and state regulations.

Under these new laws, an intensive campaign for school-district reorganization has been carried on with leadership provided by most of the agencies represented on the state educational council. Leaders in the campaign have been able to marshal convincing evidence to show that the small rural high schools, with from four to eight teachers each, could not possibly hope to meet the urgent and varied needs of rural youth. On the other hand, they have been able to point to some examples of recently consolidated schools, such as that at Farmville, as evidence of the way in which small rural districts can pool their local resources and their state aid to provide educational services for children and youth which compare favorably with the best that the cities have to offer.

The Small Rural High School

Nevertheless, educational authorities recognize that some areas in the state of Columbia are so sparsely populated that the development of schools which can offer all the youth services found in the Farmville School is at present very difficult. The improvement of secondary education for these very scattered young people is necessarily based on compromise. Even with well-routed modern bus transportation and good roads, there is a limit to the distances it is practicable to expect students to travel to and from school daily. Some of the state's secondary schools will necessarily continue to have much smaller enrolments than that of Farmville's school.

In order to insure for these youth the maximum possible advantages, the state has guarded against the more common difficulties encountered by small rural high schools. Proportionately greater amounts of state financial aid are granted to them. Good buildings and equipment, beyond the local resources of thinly populated areas, are thus made available. Teachers' salaries are kept uniform with those of larger schools, with the result that preparation, efficiency, and length of tenure among teachers and administrators are much better in small schools than hitherto. State supervisory and other services are provided to small schools in relatively greater amounts than to larger schools; this helps to broaden the scope and improve the quality of the small school program.

Last, but by no means least, the interest of the parents and other adult members of the area served by the small school has been greatly heightened by this special assistance. Community effort to vie in every possible way with the schools in more densely inhabited rural areas is thus keen. It may be said that the Farmville type of rural school provides a standard for the smallest rural schools to meet, and that there is a growing determination among the latter to furnish their own youth with as many of Farmville services as state help, hard work, and imagination will allow.

COMPULSORY SCHOOL ATTENDANCE UNTIL THE EIGHTEENTH BIRTHDAY

Shortly after the end of World War II, the state legislature changed the laws relating to required school attendance. Under the new law, attendance is required until completion of the twelfth grade or until the eighteenth birthday, whichever is the earlier.[2]

This change was deemed desirable chiefly because the majority of the secondary schools of the state, like those of Farmville and American City, were moving rapidly to serve the educational needs of *all* youth. It was therefore held that the state was justified in requiring its young people to use the services provided.

The change in the employment situation was also a factor. With the approach of the end of the war, the employment of sixteen- and seventeen-year-old boys and girls fell off. Most of the youth who lost their jobs had only a single skill and were ill-fitted to compete in the labor market with returning veterans and older, more experienced workers. Thereafter, there were fewer jobs to be found for untrained, inexperienced youth in their middle teens, and these were chiefly of the "blind-alley" type. It was thought better by far, for both youth and society, to have young people in attendance at schools in which they could secure occupational training, work experience, and a well-rounded general education than to have them enter the labor market without training, experience, or adequate educational background.

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[2] A student in Grade XI or XII, with his parents' consent, may be absent from school in order to be employed on a job which is under school supervision and which is considered a part of the student's educational program.

PUBLIC SECONDARY EDUCATION BEYOND THE HIGH SCHOOL

The decision to extend free public secondary education upward so as to include general and vocational education in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades was reached after careful study of the conditions likely to develop in the years immediately to come. It seemed probable that many, perhaps most young people would find it difficult to secure employment consistent with their abilities without more general education, vocational training, and supervised work experience than could be supplied in the high schools alone. It was clear, moreover, that some public institution was needed to prepare young men and women to enter a large number of military, technical, commercial, and semiprofessional occupations, requiring education beyond the twelfth grade. And it was agreed that the needs of society for educated citizens would alone justify the continuation of a sound program of civic and general education for another two years. These and other considerations have already been discussed in the chapters on the schools of Farmville and American City.[3]

The development of junior colleges, public and private, during the score of years preceding World War II gave evidence of public demand for institutions of this type. In the state of Columbia, the growth had been uneven. The law permitted school districts to levy taxes to support junior colleges, and it did not prohibit tuition. The results were a small number of well-developed public junior colleges in some of the wealthier and more populous areas and a larger number of high schools which offered a few postgraduate courses and often assumed the name of "junior college." The large junior colleges charged fees while the small institutions charged both fees and tuition. The situation was one which proponents of free public education believed to be wrong. They urged state action that would make higher secondary education available for all.

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[3] See pages 73-74, 217, 234-35.

New legislation, therefore, authorized both vocational and non-vocational instruction for two years beyond the conventional high school as an integral part of the system of secondary education. It abolished fees and tuitions for such instruction and placed financial support upon the same basis as that of elementary and high schools. The new laws carried a mandate to the state department of education to establish a system of post-high-school institutions in order to serve the educational needs of all the young people of the state.

GROWTH OF JUNIOR COLLEGES IN THE UNITED STATES

Year	*Publicly Controlled*		*Privately Controlled*		*Total*	
	No.	*Enrol.*	*No.*	*Enrol.*	*No.*	*Enrol.*
1919-20	10	2,940	42	5,162	52	8,102
1929-30	129	36,501	148	19,115	277	55,616
1935-36	187	70,557	228	31,896	415	102,453
1937-38	209	82,041	244	39,469	453	121,510
1939-40	217	107,553	239	42,301	456	149,854
1941-42	231	100,783	230	40,489	461	141,272
1943-44	210	56,439	203	28,177	413	84,616
1945-46	235	109,640	225	46,816	460	156,456
1947-48	242	178,196	230	61,977	472	240,173

Source: U. S. Office of Education.

Two Types of Advanced Secondary Schools

Two types of institutional service, well illustrated by the Farmville Secondary School and the American City Community College, have been developed. In Farmville and many other small communities, two years of instruction, intended primarily for the young people who expect to live in these communities or others like them, have been added to the regular secondary schools. These schools of the Farmville type offer advanced training in the major local occupational fields, together with civic, cultural, and physical education appropriate to older youth. They do not give training in occupations not well represented locally, nor do they undertake to offer courses comparable to those of the junior colleges or four-year colleges and universities. Indeed, as we shall see, schools of this type are required to remain within the limits just mentioned as a condition for receiving state financial aid.

In American City and ten other cities, new institutions of advanced secondary education have been developed, of which the American City Community College is an example. These institutions provide vocational education in many fields, each institution including the chief occupations of a large region as well as of the city itself. Together they cover practically all the occupations of the state which do not require education beyond the fourteenth grade. They also offer courses comparable to those of the first two years of four-year colleges and universities. In common with secondary schools of the Farmville type, they supply continuing civic, cultural, and physical education to all their students and are responsible for local programs of education for adults and out-of-school youth.

The name "community college" is used throughout the state for this second type of institution. The term "junior college" already had a variety of meanings because of the diversity of practices in institutions bearing that title. Therefore, it was deemed advisable to use a name free from associations with past practices.

Not all community colleges have the same organization. The state laws about community colleges refer to the thirteenth and fourteenth grades of public education, but they do not prescribe how these two advanced secondary grades shall be related to the rest of the school system. In some communities, as in American City, the two upper grades constitute an advanced secondary school which is housed and staffed separately from the senior high schools. In other cities, such as Three Rivers, the thirteenth and fourteenth grades have been joined with the eleventh and twelfth to form a four-year community college, while Grades VII to X, inclusive, constitute the lower secondary school, known locally as the "intermediate school."

Whatever the particular form of organization may be, the program of Grades XIII and XIV is looked upon as an integral part of the eight-year structure of secondary education.

A State System of Community Colleges

The decision to authorize free public community colleges in the state of Columbia gave rise to a train of problems of state administration. First and foremost was the question, Where should community colleges be located? It was clear that some form of state control would be needed. Otherwise, most cities and many towns would almost surely move at once to establish the new institutions, especially since the law provided that the state would pay a portion of the costs of operation.[4] It was not difficult to imagine the results or to see how undesirable they would be. Within a few years, there would be dozens of community colleges in the state, presenting as mixed an assortment as had the junior colleges. Many of them would doubtless have inadequate staffs and equipment and curriculums quite unsuited to the needs of many youth. Too often their offerings would consist only of courses in lower division college subjects and training in a few vocations.

State Aid Limited to Approved Institutions

The laws were therefore framed to *limit state aid to those community colleges approved by the state board of education* and to give the state department of education one year in which to study the matter before any community college should be approved.

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[4] See pages 332-33.

The division of research of the state department of education at once undertook a thorough study of the needs for advanced secondary institutions, the distribution of youth population, and the abilities of communities to support such institutions. The staffs of several schools of education joined in the enterprise. The state superintendent of public instruction appointed a large and representative commission on secondary education, including both educators and lay citizens, to consider the problem from the point of view of the state as a whole and to advise the staff of the state department of education.

At the same time, the state officials sought to stimulate local interest and initiative, since it was recognized that these would be essential to the successful operation of the kinds of community colleges which were desired and which were to be under the control of local boards of education. Any school district wishing to be considered as a possible applicant for a community college was invited to submit a prospectus of its plans. All such statements were reviewed and checked by the division of research.

The outcome of the year's work was that the state department of education, with the aid of the advisory commission, was able to formulate a tentative plan for a state system of community colleges so located as to bring the majority of the youth of the state within commuting distance of one or another of the colleges. Among the chief considerations in locating the colleges were these: (a) The community and its tributary area should have a sufficient number of young people of community college age to assure a relatively large enrolment, thus making it possible to offer education in a variety of vocational and cultural fields without excessive cost. (b) The community should have the financial resources to support the community college when state aid and payments for students from other districts were taken into account. (c) The community, with its share of state aid, should be able to provide adequate plant and equipment. (d) The district should present a plan for curriculum and staff which would assure a program suited to the needs of the youth of the community and the surrounding area. (e) The proposed community college should be so located as to fit into the state system. (f) The proposed community college should not duplicate existing facilities for education beyond Grade XII.

Allocation of Vocational Fields Among the Community Colleges

Early in the planning, it became clear that some division of labor among the community colleges would be not only advisable but necessary. There were many technical and semiprofessional occupations in the state, each of which annually required only a small number of new workers. One or two community colleges could readily supply all the trained bakers, lens grinders, watch repairmen, and commercial photographers needed for beginners' positions in the entire state. It would obviously be wasteful and inefficient if any large number of community colleges were to offer training in such fields. In the new legislation, therefore, the state department of education was empowered to allocate vocational fields among the community colleges in such manner that the annual supply of persons trained in the state would approximate the state's demand for new workers. Due account was to be taken, of course, of the facilities in the local communities for observation and supervised work experience.

The Columbia State Department of Education has never had to exercise authority in this matter. It holds an annual conference of the administrators and curriculum officers of all the public community colleges in the state, and the allocations of vocational fields are worked out in these conferences by mutual agreement. We have seen how the American City Community College serves as the state's training center for the air-conditioning and refrigeration industry and for air transportation and as one of two or three centers for training in aircraft maintenance, baking, and printing. Each of the other community colleges in the state has its corresponding specialties.

There are many other occupations which have such consistently high demands for trained workers that one finds them represented in all or practically all of the community colleges. Office management, secretarial training, accounting, retail selling, metal trades, electrical trades, and building trades are examples.

Operating and Capital Costs in Cases of Interdistrict Attendance

A youth residing in a district not maintaining a high school had long been permitted to attend high school in another district under regulations which authorized the district of attendance to collect the state subsidies and to charge the district of residence for the remainder of the cost of instruction. These authorizations were now made applicable to community colleges and secondary schools extending through the fourteenth grade. "Cost of instruction" was defined to include depreciation on plant and equipment and debt service as well as current expenditures.

Safeguards were set up to prevent students from leaving one district for another merely because of whim. Before a student residing in a district maintaining a post-high-school program may attend a similar school elsewhere, an agreement regarding the transfer must be certified by the superintendents of the district of attendance and of the district of residence on a form developed by the state department of education.

It was correctly anticipated that many students would leave the districts in which their homes were located in order to secure advanced vocational and technical education not available locally. Such changes of residence occurred most frequently among young people from rural areas who looked forward to living and working in cities. Improved transportation and judicious location of community colleges made commuting possible for many students—but by no means for all. It was therefore decided that residence halls should be erected in connection with community colleges approved for this purpose by the state department of education and that the state should pay the costs of building and equipment. Residence halls are operated by the local districts on a nonprofit basis.

Since each community college would serve an area larger than the district in which it was located, it was considered only fair that the district should not bear the full cost of constructing and equipping college buildings. After careful study, the division of research developed a formula for financial assistance from the state, based on the ratio of high-school graduates in the tributary area to the high-school graduates in the district operating the community college, for the three years preceding the approval of the building program. This formula was subsequently incorporated in the state school code.

Consolidated Organization
To Support Community Colleges

Because of the distribution of population, it was foreseen that gaps might occur in the state system of community colleges. In certain sparsely settled rural areas it seemed likely that many years would pass before districts would be formed which would be able to support community colleges in addition to high and elementary schools. For a long time, it was expected, the high schools in these areas would continue to be small institutions dependent upon extensive transportation systems to serve their students. Consolidation of high-school districts would be limited to the areas which could be served by school buses. The law, therefore, provides that two or more high-school districts may combine to form a larger district to maintain a community college with residence facilities for those students who live beyond the range of school buses. Such an institution is under the jurisdiction of its own community college district board which operates in the same manner as other governing boards. State funds are distributed in accordance with the principles established for financing other public schools.

Local Control
of Community Colleges

Some members of the state committees proposed that the new community colleges be operated as a part of the system of state-supported college and university education with the full costs paid from state funds. An argument of much weight was that such education corresponds to the lower divisions of the state colleges and universities, the cost of which is borne entirely by the state. It would be unfair, so it was argued, for local districts to maintain a substantial part of the costs for community colleges while the state was wholly supporting comparable education elsewhere.

While the inequity of the situation was admitted, the view eventually prevailed that the advantages of local operation and control far outweighed the disadvantages. The community college, it was asserted, is obligated to minister to all the educational needs of all its students. One of its functions, to be sure, is to prepare a part of its students for admission to the upper divisions of standard colleges and universities. But that is only one among many. The total purpose of advanced secondary education is much more comprehensive. It is to supply both liberal education and practical training to a large body of youth, many of whom may not be able to devote more than a few months or a year to post-high-school study and some of whom may be able to attend classes only on a part-time basis. Local responsibility and local control, it was urged, will keep a community college close to the community and responsive to community demands. Remote control, exercised by a board operating upon a statewide basis, will become impersonal and sooner or later will limit the services which the school renders to its community.

Community control, moreover, will go far to assure continuity in the programs of the community colleges and of the high schools from which their students come. The history of American education has demonstrated that units of the school system become isolated when separately administered. For example, a quarter of a century ago, separately administered high schools and elementary schools often pursued their courses in relative isolation from one another, and one of the chief arguments in favor of establishing junior high schools was that they would help to "bridge the gap" between eighth and ninth grades. The history of the influence of college entrance requirements on secondary schools shows how a separately organized, powerful educational unit can restrict desirable curriculum development in another unit. On the other hand, experience shows that these difficulties are largely overcome under unified administration and control.

There are now eleven community colleges in the state of Columbia, and it is not likely that the number will greatly increase. Further growth will probably take the form of enlargement of these institutions and development of additional courses within them.

Thirteenth and Fourteenth Grades in Other Secondary Schools

A great deal of public education beyond twelfth grade takes place quite apart from the community colleges, however. Any school district which does not have a community college may now offer instruction at the thirteenth and fourteenth grade levels in its secondary school or schools if it meets the minimum standards set by the state department of education and if its vocational education is limited to the chief occupational fields represented in the local community. The Farmville Secondary School is a good example of a secondary school embracing the eight years from Grade VII through Grade XIV and offering advanced courses in agriculture, homemaking, retail trade, business education, and mechanics. Although Farmville pioneered in this field, one now finds comparable arrangements in most of the secondary schools which are not within commuting distance of community colleges. A secondary school receives state aid for its thirteenth and fourteenth years on the same basis as a community college. The law makes it clear, however, that the two upper years in such a school do not constitute a community college.

This suggests the question of the relationships of community colleges to the secondary schools in districts which do not have community colleges. Each such secondary school, it is believed, should be closely and permanently related to a community college, preferably the one most conveniently located with respect to transportation. For one thing, competition for out-of-town students among the community colleges is considered highly undesirable. A more important reason is that a close relationship greatly facilitates the operation of a continuous guidance program, bridging the transition from high school to community college. The Columbia State Department of Education, with the advice of the commission on secondary education, has mapped out a tributary area for each community college and has adopted the regulation that a high-school graduate will normally attend the community college in whose area his high school is located. Exceptions are made, of course, in the cases of students interested in vocations not represented in the curriculum of their local community college. We have already had occasion to observe many contacts and examples of cooperation in the case of the American City Community College and the Farmville Secondary School which lies in the tributary area of American City.

EDUCATION FOR OUT-OF-SCHOOL YOUTH AND ADULTS

All these provisions, however, were not enough. The members of the state planning groups were quick to see that, even in the best of school systems, all the educational needs of youth could not possibly be met within twelve or fourteen years of school attendance. Some aspects of education must wait upon experience and maturity. When a youth joins the armed forces; when he takes his first full-time job; when he loses that job and has to find another; when he marries and establishes a home; when he becomes a voter; when he joins a labor union, a farmers' organization, or a businessman's association; when he finds that he has four hours of leisure time a day at his disposal—then he is likely to become keenly aware of educational needs which only a few months before had seemed remote.

Legal provisions were therefore made for the support of a comprehensive program of free public adult education which would be open to all youth not in full-time attendance at school. The law authorized but did not require districts to admit adults and out-of-school youth to regular classes in community colleges and in the thirteenth and fourteenth grades of secondary schools. It also authorized districts to organize and maintain part-time and evening classes in any subject and to receive financial aid from the state for classes in subjects approved by the state board of education. The board's approvals, we may add, have been broad enough to encompass practically the whole range of interests of adults and older youth—vocational, avocational, civic, cultural, family life, homemaking, and health. A satisfactory formula was developed for translating units of attendance in part-time classes into units of school population as a basis for distributing state financial aid.

In anticipation of the possible establishment of work camps for youth in public parks and forests and on public conservation and construction projects, the law provides that state aid may be applied to the support of educational programs in such camps. It further authorizes the state legislature to appropriate funds to pay for the difference between the total costs of such programs and the state funds supplied under the regular plan of state aid. Since work camps are usually remote from the larger school districts, the state department of education is authorized to operate and control educational programs in camps, but it may contract with local school systems to carry all or part of this responsibility.

THE STATE BOARD OF EDUCATION

The state board of education is composed of nine members, each of whom serves nine years. Terms are arranged so that one vacancy occurs each year. For purposes of nominating members of this board, the state is divided into nine "areas" approximately equal in population. One member of the state board of education is appointed from each of these "areas." Whenever a position on the board is about to become vacant, the state superintendent of public instruction sends nominating ballots to all the members of local boards of education in the "area" which the retiring member represents. Each local board of education member is allowed to nominate not to exceed three candidates from the "area" in which he resides. Ballots are returned to and tabulated by the state superintendent of public instruction. A second ballot is prepared, containing the names of the ten persons receiving the highest number of votes in the first election. This ballot is also sent to all members of local boards of education in the "area." The names of the three persons receiving the largest numbers of votes on this ballot are then submitted to the governor of the state who must appoint one of these three to the state board of education. The appointment is subject to confirmation by the senate. Under this plan, no governor could appoint a majority of the board during one term of office except by reason of deaths and resignations.

This organization of the state board of education is new in

Columbia and was adopted after an extensive survey of existing and proposed practices. A plan for an *ex officio* board, composed of state officials, was rejected because of unsatisfactory experiences in other states. So also was a proposal for a board made up of professional educators. A board of lay citizens, interested in public education and free from partisan political controls, was preferred.

The state board of education's position in relation to the state system of public education and the chief state school officer is similar to that of a city board of education in relation to the city schools and the city superintendent of schools.[5] The board is a policy-making body. The chief state school officer is the executive officer of the board. The state board of education is empowered to make such rules and regulations for the conduct and operation of the public schools as are not in conflict with school law. The state department of education, after consultation with representatives of the public schools, formulates proposals and recommendations for the board's consideration.

THE STATE DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION

The state department of education is headed by the chief state school officer (in Columbia, the superintendent of public instruction) who is appointed by the state board of education. All the members of the staff responsible for policy-making (associate superintendents, assistant superintendents, directors, and supervisors) are appointed by the state board of education upon nomination by the state superintendent of public instruction. Neither the chief state school officer nor members of the staff are required to be residents of the state at the time of appointment. The laws were framed to enable the state to secure the ablest professional people available anywhere in the nation. Salaries of division chiefs compare favorably with those of superintendents of all but the largest city schools and with those of department heads in colleges. Under these conditions, a staff of persons of substantial professional ability has been developed. Employees in grades below those of policy-making officials are under civil service and have qualified for their positions through competitive examinations administered by the state personnel board.

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[5] We do not here consider the question of desirable organization for the administration of *all* aspects of education at the state level, since we are concerned only with secondary education in this report. For a discussion of over-all organization see page 90 in the Educational Policies Commission's statement on *The Structure and Administration of Education in American Democracy*. (National Education Association and American Association of School Administrators, Educational Policies Commission, Washington, D. C., 1938.)

To enlist some of the best talent in the state in dealing with educational policies and problems, a plan has been developed for appointing temporary commissions to advise the staff of the state department of education on specific problems. Such a commission is appointed when a problem arises on which counsel is needed, and it is usually continued until the main steps have been taken toward the solution of the problem. For example, a commission on secondary education served in this capacity during the three years after the laws were passed authorizing free public education through the thirteenth and fourteenth grades.

The State Department and the Local School Districts

The superintendent of public instruction and other members of the staff of the state department of education are thoroughly committed to the principle that schools should be controlled chiefly by local governing boards and their chief executive officers and staffs with only the necessary minimum of control by state officials. The department staff believes that, if the community is relieved of responsibility for the operation of its schools, the schools will sooner or later lose touch with the life of the community

At the same time, the state department of education follows the policy that minimum standards of education should be set by the laws of the state and by the regulations of the state board of education. Without minimum standards there will be erratic performances by some local boards of education, and in vital matters affecting the schools there will be failures which will seriously impair educational services. While advocating the maintenance of standards, the department of education recognizes that standards, as a rule, are more effectively maintained through competent and inspiring leadership on the part of the state staff than through stress on enforcement of laws and regulations.

Experience shows that there are few intentional violations of the laws and that violations become fewer as administrators are better trained and grow in experience and professional outlook. Indeed, administrators frequently suggest new or advanced standards which they believe are needed to improve the schools. Now and then, however, there are boards of education and school administrators who seek to evade the state's requirements, and then the state must exercise its powers of enforcement.

The state department of education takes the point of view that the success of its program is measured by the developments which take place in the schools of the state. It seeks to supply a high quality of professional leadership to the state's educational forces, to take an active part in all educational councils, and to conduct research needed for statewide advancement of education. In all such matters it cooperates with the institutions of higher education in the state and particularly with teachers colleges, schools of education, and bureaus of educational research. It formulates its program from the problems confronting the public schools, and for this reason it keeps in close contact with state and local professional organizations. Members of the state department staff mingle with their colleagues from local school systems in many meetings.

Schoolhouse Planning

Some years ago the legislature passed a law establishing a division of schoolhouse planning in the state department of education. This division has amply demonstrated its usefulness. The law requires that, whenever a district expects to erect a new building, its plans must be submitted to this division for examination and approval. The division also offers consultative services to the local districts in matters pertaining to school plant and equipment.

Minimum standards pertaining to such factors as heating facilities, lighting, sanitation, and construction must be followed in designing and erecting school buildings. These standards would be readily accepted by any competent architect. Each community employs its own architect and is encouraged to go well beyond minimum standards in developing plans suited to the local situation.

The staff of the division of schoolhouse planning has supplied advice to many districts on the organization of surveys as the basis for building programs, and it has visited many others to study and to give advice on plans that are fairly well matured. It has been particularly helpful in developing plans for community college buildings and for community schools such as those in the Farmville district. Underlying all its work are the principles that program planning must precede the planning of buildings and that buildings must be fashioned to achieve educational objectives.

At the suggestion of the division of schoolhouse planning, legislation was passed before the close of World War II, enabling local governing boards to raise funds to be devoted to capital outlays. New construction had all but stopped during the war except the emergency construction in centers where the war had caused unusual population increases. As a result, many districts needed to undertake extensive building programs as soon as the war should end. By means of relatively small taxes over several years, these districts accumulated funds which have since been used to erect school buildings suited to the postwar needs and programs. Several of the newly consolidated districts, which faced the need for immediate erection of new school plants, were able to match the subsidies from the state capital outlay fund without resorting to bond issues.

School administrators did not forget the lessons learned during the thirties in connection with the federal programs of public works. They remembered that many districts had been unable to take advantage of the offer of federal aid for school building construction because the districts lacked the funds required as the local contribution. Local governing boards now took the point of view that, if federal money were again to become available following the war and if the local district were required to supply a part of the cost of new construction, the building fund would enable them immediately to provide the district's share of the expense. If the federal government undertook no program, the local building fund could still be used as far as it would go.

Certification and Education of Teachers

For many years, the laws of the state of Columbia have empowered the state board of education to set the standards of educational accomplishment which teachers must attain before being certified to teach in the schools, and to specify certain other requirements.

The staff of the state department of education has been scrupulously careful to see that these standards are observed. One of its most difficult problems arose out of the large number of "emergency certificates" issued to persons who could not meet the minimum standards during the years of the war when the supply of certified teachers fell far short of the demand. The state department of education staff has worked untiringly to restore adherence to standards, either by revoking emergency certificates or by requiring that teachers holding them shall complete the requirements for regular certificates within a specified time.

Excellence of teaching cannot be assured by minimum standards alone, however. The success of school programs like those in Farmville and American City depends upon teachers whose competencies can never be reduced to legal formulas. For some years now, a large part of the state department of education staff, aided by an advisory commission, has been working with institutions for the education of teachers in a cooperative effort to improve the professional preparation of teachers well beyond the minimum required by law. At the same time, the staff has been conferring with administrators and supervisors in school systems throughout the state in joint endeavors to improve the methods of selecting teachers, the processes of inducting new teachers, and the programs of in-service teacher education. In all these undertakings, the state staff seeks to supply leadership, stimulation, and expert counsel rather than to prescribe. Its techniques are those of the conference and the "workshop."

Principles in Teacher Education and Selection

Among the principles which have guided the state department of education, these are particularly worthy of mention:

1. Every teacher should comprehend the purposes of public education in a democratic society and should clearly see how his own work contributes to the achievement of these purposes.

2. Every teacher should have both a liberal education and thorough preparation in the field in which he expects to teach. Specialization alone is not enough, for in the secondary school of today the competent teacher must be able to see and teach the relationships of his particular subjects to the whole of education and the whole of life.[6]

3. Because of the prime importance of citizenship education in all schools and for all pupils, every teacher should be well prepared to assume his own obligations as a citizen and should also understand how the school may serve as an agency for developing civic responsibility.

4. Every teacher should have sympathetic understanding of boys and girls and should be familiar with scientific information regarding child development and the psychology of learning.

5. In view of the growing recognition of the importance of guidance, particularly in secondary schools, every teacher should understand the nature and purposes of guidance and should have had practical experience in individual and group guidance as a part of his training.

6. Every teacher of vocational courses and every teacher in other fields related to the world of work should have had some experience, as an adult, in work outside the teaching profession.

7. Every teacher should have had training and experience in studying community problems or in working with community agencies other than the school.

8. Programs for the education of teachers should include supervised experience in dealing with actual problems representative of those which students are likely to encounter later as teachers, and the college records of candidates for teaching should include full reports of candidates' performances in these situations.

Let us not suppose that no obstacles are encountered. Pressure must still be exerted against the influence of some members of college and university faculties who are unacquainted with the needs of the public schools and who apparently believe that specialized training in subjectmatter alone is adequate to prepare a young man or woman to teach in a secondary school. On the other hand, the state department of education must restrain the insistence of some instructors in college departments of education that professional courses be multiplied until they require most of the prospective teacher's time. Then, too, there are problems arising out of the desire of understaffed colleges to be accredited as institutions for teacher education and from the failure of even the better-equipped institutions to make adequate provision for observation, apprentice teaching, and community experience.

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[6] For example, see the description of the course in "Common Learnings" in the American City secondary schools, pages 237-54.

One might add pages to the list of problems. The important thing, however, is that encouraging progress is being made in meeting them, not so much by changing laws and regulations, as by supplying competent professional leadership and employing the methods of education and democratic group action.[7]

The state department of education also administers, at the state level, the laws and regulations relating to teacher tenure and teacher retirement.

The State and the Curriculum

The law gives the state board of education authority to determine, in broad outline, the scope of the educational program to be provided in local communities. The board has consistently used its authority to define only the minimum essentials of the curriculum. Every district enjoys wide latitude to exceed the prescribed minimum, to adapt the curriculum to its local conditions, and to experiment with new fields and methods of instruction.

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[7] The brevity of this treatment of education of teachers is deliberate. The importance of this subject is not to be measured by the space here given to it. Rather than to extend the treatment of teacher education in this volume, the Commission wishes to refer its readers to the reports of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education and to the publications of the National Commission on Teacher Education and Professional Standards of the National Education Association. See, for example, *The Improvement of Teacher Education*, final report of the Commission on Teacher Education (Washington, D. C.: American Council on Education, 1946); the reports of the NCTEPS; and the latter Commission's *Journal of Teacher Education*, issued quarterly since March 1950.

The last ten years have seen more changes in the curriculums of secondary schools in the state of Columbia than any comparable period in the state's history. In such a dynamic period, the state department of education has pursued the policy of leaving the statements of minimum essentials unaltered while seeking to encourage and guide those changes in curriculum which seem directed toward more adequate educational services for the youth of the state. Changes in prescriptions of minimum essentials, it is believed, should be the product of a period of experimentation. Only in a few extreme cases of ill-considered aberrations has the department employed its authority to restrain a local district.

Most of the efforts of the state staff have been devoted to fostering interest, initiative, and resourcefulness on the part of local teachers and school administrators and of institutions for teacher education. The state department of education has sponsored or cooperated in a large number of conferences and workshops on curriculum improvement. It has advised the curriculum committees in many local school systems. It has kept in touch with most of the new curriculum developments within the state and many of those in other parts of the country and has disseminated information about the best of these to schools throughout the state. The research division has made a number of important studies of educational needs of youth and of the results of new curriculum practices and has reported the results both to educators and to the public. Out of such experiments as those at Farmville and American City, a body of tested principles is emerging which can be used as guides by everyone. The state staff seeks to promote and aid such experiments, to evaluate their outcomes, and to make their results available to all the schools.

Work Experience

Supervised work experience, we recall, has a large place in the program of secondary schools in Farmville and American City, and under certain conditions school credit is granted for work in private or public employment. Such practice is now common throughout the state of Columbia.

When educators began to propose that credit be granted for supervised work experience, it became clear that local districts were not free to act as they might choose. The state was involved, for the state regulations regarding credits, attendance, and the distribution of state funds had been framed without reference to supervised work experience. Local school administrators asked for a statement of state policy and of the basic principles involved. Such a statement, they believed, would help the local districts to develop sound practices and would go far to prevent careless administrators from bringing work experience into disrepute.

The state department of education again turned for counsel to an advisory commission which included representatives of employers and labor organizations as well as educators. The department staff analyzed the school law to determine what restrictions, if any, the law placed on the crediting of supervised work experience. The staff report called attention to the fact that the essentials of the work experience program had been a part of the secondary curriculum for many years, appearing as office work or retail selling for pupils enrolled in business courses, as farm and home projects in agriculture or homemaking classes, and as shopwork in the trade and industrial program. Work in these fields was not only permitted but encouraged under existing laws and formed a basis from which extensions could be made to include other kinds of work experience. With the aid of the advisory commission, the staff prepared a statement of principles, in substance as follows:

1. The pupil must be regularly enrolled in the school so that the school can control his work experience to the end that the pupil may learn thereby. Credit can be given only when there is evidence that learning has occurred.

2. The work experience must be related to the pupil's total educational program. The project in agriculture carried on by a pupil preparing to operate a farm and the work in an office by a pupil preparing for a business career illustrate the desirable relationship between work experience and the pupil's purposes. It is not always possible, however, to achieve such a close correspondence between work and vocational plans. When that is the case, learning to work well at any job may properly be considered a part of a

pupil's education whatever his plans for a future occupation may be. Decisions in such matters should be left to the staffs of the local schools.

3. Work experience must be supervised by a member of the teaching or administrative staff of the school in which the pupil is enrolled, as well as by the employer. Unless care is exercised to insure proper working conditions, the pupil may gain little from his experience. Credit for work experience should, therefore, be contingent upon supervision which will insure continued learning.

4. Work experience must be so organized as to produce continuous growth in specific skills and knowledge. Repetition of a few simple processes which may be learned quickly must not be long continued if credit is to be granted. While the pupil should learn to report to work on time, to continue to work at one job even though he may prefer to be elsewhere, and to give an honest day's work for a day's pay, he should not be left for long on a job after he has learned all the skills and knowledge which the job requires.

5. An evaluation of the individual's work experience must be made and the evaluation entered upon the pupil's record. As far as possible, objective instruments of appraisal should be used.

This statement was submitted to the state board of education and adopted.

College Entrance Requirements

At the close of World War II large numbers of young men and women returned to the colleges and universities to resume their courses while even more sought entrance to collegiate institutions for the first time. In addition to the usual college-bound students among recent graduates from the high schools, there was a large number of young people who had entered military service or employment with no college experience and who now desired college education. A strong stimulus for erstwhile members of the armed forces to return to school was provided by the federal aid granted by the so-called "G.I. Bill of Rights." Confronted with what was regarded in many quarters as a patriotic duty, collegiate institutions did not hold to the stringent entrance requirements which some of them had enforced in the past. Moreover, they agreed that a certain amount of credit might be given for special training in the Army and Navy and for correspondence courses completed through the Armed Forces Institute. These changed attitudes encouraged the Columbia State Department of Education to investigate the question of college entrance requirements in order to see if all the higher institutions might be willing to adopt some criteria of admission other than the conventional grades and patterns of subjects.

This question had already been considered by some other groups, among them a state committee consisting of representatives of universities and colleges, of secondary schools, and of the regional accrediting association. This committee was called into consultation by the state department of education. Representatives of the state office and administrators of the secondary schools advocated freedom for the high schools to develop their own educational programs and asserted that this would not interfere with the work of the colleges. They presented evidence to show that colleges could select students by other means which were equal, if not superior, to course grades and patterns of subjects. Their case was warmly supported by some representatives of the colleges and universities who had had experience in selecting candidates for the ASTP and the Navy V-5 and V-12 programs and who knew how inadequate the conventional system of grades and credits had been for that purpose.

Much work and many conferences were needed before the proposals for change could be sufficiently considered. Methods had to be devised for carrying the question to committees on entrance requirements in individual colleges and universities and for getting members of these committees and representatives of the secondary schools to sit down together around conference tables. Comparable movements in the other states of the regional accrediting association had to be examined and working relationships established with other state departments of education.

As we have observed in the cases of Farmville and American City, complete success in the development of new standards of admission to college has not yet been attained. In general, it may be said that there is an increasing tendency among colleges, universities, other state departments, and regional accrediting associations to combine the traditional subject-and-grade type of evaluation with the use of achievement and aptitude tests. Notable especially in this connection is the growth, in use and recognition, of the College Entrance Examination Board services. As such more broadly searching kinds of evaluation become more common among colleges, the development of secondary educational programs like those found in Farmville and American City will be both easier and more effective.

Community Youth Councils

As one travels about the state of Columbia today, he finds that most communities have youth councils which have been of great assistance to the secondary schools and have performed many other useful services. Since the youth council in Farmville has already been described,[4] we shall tell no more about local councils at this time. We should point out, however, that the state department of education has played a large part in the development of these councils. The staff members of the department have told stories of the successful councils in their travels about the state and have consulted with local authorities about plans for starting councils in their communities.

Local councils normally include representatives of many interests which are found in the state government—education, health, recreation, social welfare, employment, industrial and labor relations, and the like. Several years ago the director of the division of secondary education began to invite representatives of these state offices to meet at a monthly luncheon to discuss matters relating to the education and welfare of youth at the state level. These conferences proved quite valuable and have been continued. Representatives of other agencies have been added—the state congress of parents and teachers; the Columbia State Education Association; the agricultural extension service; state organizations of employers, laborers, and farmers; and several group work agencies. This informal state council makes no attempt to operate a program of its own. It is concerned chiefly with the ways in which its members can be of greatest service to youth councils and youth agencies in local communities. It also undertakes to see that the interests of youth are adequately represented in the councils of state government.

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[4] See pages 155-56.

A STATE SERVICE OF GUIDANCE FOR YOUTH

The state plan of guidance, as it has developed five years after the war, is based on the conviction that the school's obligation to its students is not discharged until each youth is launched on his adult career with a fair outlook for success suited to his abilities. The schools, therefore, have undertaken to provide an adequate counseling service to all youth during their years in school and also through the initial period of adjustment to full-time employment.[9] As far as possible, the responsibility for guidance lies with the staffs of the local schools.

Many young people, however, do not remain in the same districts throughout their periods of schooling and initial employment. They move from rural areas to cities and from one city to another, some to continue their education and some to seek work. The Columbia State Department of Education recognized that no collection of separate guidance systems could give adequate service to these youth who migrate. Some plan of statewide guidance service was needed.

The situation could be met either by the establishment of a system of guidance directly operated by the state department of education or by the cooperative efforts of the local schools and the department. Consistent with its philosophy of favoring local administration and control, the department chose to act through voluntary agreements to cooperate, worked out in conference, rather than by setting up a system of guidance to be operated by the state.

It was generally agreed among the schools that whenever a boy or girl moved from one community to another, whether he was going to another school or was seeking employment, the school counseling staff would promptly notify the staff in the community to which he was moving and would send a transcript of his records. The counseling staff in the new community would then assume responsibility.

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[9] See pages 49-59, 289-301.

The community colleges, moreover, agreed that their counseling staffs would maintain contact with the smaller tributary schools in the surrounding areas to discover those young people who were planning to go to cities and to try to anticipate some of their problems. This entails considerable field service on the part of the community college counselors.

Personal History Records

When the schools began to depart from the conventional methods of recording grades and credits, the need for some other system of reasonably uniform records became apparent. The admissions officers in the institutions of higher education wanted such records, and the guidance staffs of the secondary schools needed them in order to serve the young people who moved from one community to another. A system of records was developed jointly by the state department of education and a committee of educators from the public schools and the colleges with advice from national agencies. The research division of the state department of education helped to prepare the forms, studied their uses, and from time to time has proposed improvements. The use of these "personal history records" is optional, but most of the districts in the state are now using them.

The state department of education has other functions related to guidance of which we shall mention two. It carries on research and cooperates with other state agencies—particularly with the public employment service—in gathering information about occupational trends, opportunities, and requirements at the state level and in making this available to all the schools in the state. It also acts as the medium for communication between the U. S. Office of Education and the local schools and supplies the schools with information about occupational trends and outlooks received from national sources.

FEDERAL AID FOR PUBLIC EDUCATION

The state of Columbia has been a leader among the states in recent efforts to broaden the extent of federal aid to education.

While the actual control of public education has been, and it is firmly believed should be, a state and local function, throughout our history the federal government has shown an increasing interest in providing support for the nation's schools. This national concern for youth training was first officially stated in the pre-constitutional Ordinance of 1787 (the "Northwest Ordinance"), sometimes referred to as the "charter of public education," which announced that ". . . the means of education shall forever be encouraged." During early constitutional times, such national leaders as Washington, Jefferson, Hamilton, and Madison were noted for their interest in education, and gave it as much federal support as the jealousies among the states in those days would allow.

Land Grant Colleges

The first important federal legislation to aid our schools took the form of money and land grants for the establishment by the states of vocational and agricultural colleges. Most notable of the federal laws for this purpose was the Morrill Act of 1862. Since its passage, further funds have been made available to the "land grant" colleges. As the state of Columbia's own state university is one of these schools, Columbia has had a long-standing interest in federal aid to education.

Federal Support of Secondary Vocational Education

The first direct federal support of secondary education came in 1917 with the Smith-Hughes Act which provided money to assist the states in supporting programs for training in agriculture, home economics, trades and industry, and teacher education in the public schools. Since this act, there have been several other secondary-school grants for vocational education. The costs of maintaining the state of Columbia's vocational programs in its community colleges have been partially defrayed by this kind of financial support.

FEDERAL LEGISLATION IN SUPPORT OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

Smith-Hughes Act	1917
George-Reed Act	1929
George-Ellzey Act	1934
George-Deen Act	1936
George-Barden Act	1946

United States Office of Education

In 1867, the federal government recognized its obligation to the education of the nation's youth through the establishment of what is now the United States Office of Education, at present a part of the Federal Security Agency. Among many services rendered to public education by this office are: the administration of some of the federal funds granted to states; the gathering and distribution of statistical and other information on American education; research and field studies in educational problems; and consultative and advisory programs and activities. The Office of Education has, with some ups and downs, grown in scope and importance through the years. State of Columbia educational leaders, and school people throughout the state, have profited so greatly from the services of the Office that they believe these services should now be greatly broadened and extended.

Other Types of Federal Support

We have referred several times in our discussions of education in Farmville, American City, and the state of Columbia to other kinds of federal aid to the education of the nation's youth. These have been emergency measures, most often associated with wartime dislocations. In some instances, the problem has been one of the rapid training of workers in special skills, as in the war production programs of World War II. In other cases, the need was to train officer candidates, as in the ASTP and the Navy V-5 and V-12 programs. In still others, the desire was to help youth whose education had been interrupted by military service or, worse, by service disability. Typical of these latter federal aids have been the Smith-Sears Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1918, the more recent and comprehensive rehabilitation measures for disabled veterans of World War II, and what is commonly called the G.I. Bill. In all of these types of federal support for education, the state of Columbia schools have participated, and its youth have profited.

The only direct attempt by the federal government to operate an educational program occurred during the depression years of the thirties, when the NYA and CCC programs were organized. The experience of the state of Columbia with this direct federal effort led its leaders to believe that future federal educational assistance to the nation's youth should be conducted through the regular secondary schools and colleges.

The Need for Further Federal Aid

In the first chapter of this book, we pointed to the need for more federal aid for education in the United States. Here it is sufficient to say that the school authorities in the state of Columbia, and other interested citizens of the state, are convinced that, just as the opportunities for education in their own state should be equal everywhere, so the educational advantages throughout the nation should at least be more nearly equalized than they are now. There is, they feel, no justice in jeopardizing the welfare of a part of the country's youth simply because of the accident of birth. Yet, as matters stand today, many American boys and girls are born in states which do not have sufficient wealth to give them even a satisfactory minimum of educational opportunity. Farsighted laymen and school people in the state of Columbia know that this situation is detrimental to their own state's welfare, and certainly to that of the nation generally.

Within the state of Columbia, itself, there is much need of federal funds if the objectives of the state department of education and the rural and city school systems are to be attained. Both for the sake of their own youth and those of states less fortunate, the forward-looking people of Columbia eagerly await, and vigorously support, the passage of permanent federal legislation to aid all the nation's public schools.

Such is the framework of state law, state administration, and financial support for education in the state of Columbia. Within that framework, eleven community colleges and close to two hundred high schools have developed programs which are well advanced on the way to meeting the educational needs of *all* youth. Those which we have seen, in Farmville and American City, are fairly representative of the state as a whole.

CHAPTER 10

EDUCATION FOR ALL AMERICAN YOUTH MOVES FORWARD

AT THE time the Commission planned this revision of EDUCATION FOR ALL AMERICAN YOUTH, the volume was approximately five years old. Many changes in school practices and in the scope of youth services have occurred in the thousands of secondary schools throughout the country since the original edition of the book. The Commission felt that brief accounts of some of these changes would form an interesting and suggestive final chapter for the new edition.

To that end, a number of rural and urban schools in representative areas of the nation were asked to provide short accounts of what they believed to be the most important developments in their schools during the past five years. Similar requests were also made of state departments of education.[1]

The responses to these appeals were so numerous and so extensive that only a small fraction of them—and these in severely condensed form—could be included in this chapter. In order to reduce the material to practicable proportions, and at the same time to give an idea of the emphasis placed upon certain phases of secondary education by the contributing schools, the most frequently reported-upon areas of educational improvements have been selected for presentation. These areas are: guidance, vocational education, community-school relations, and curriculum.

This chapter, then, begins with reports from rural and urban schools grouped into four sections to correspond to the four areas most frequently reported. The fifth section is devoted to a brief résumé of reports from state departments of education. Thus the five sections are:

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[1] These schools, state departments, and other cooperating agencies are named at the end of this chapter.

- I. Guidance and Student Adjustment Activities
- II. Vocational Education Developments
- III. Community and School Relations
- IV. Recent Curriculum Adjustments
- V. Developments in Statewide Secondary Education

Few, if any, of the developments reported by the contributing schools are "new," in the sense that they have not existed previously in some—perhaps in many—other American schools. They are new, rather, in that they represent vigor and progress in the schools where the developments have taken place. More important, they are typical of many thousands of such improvements throughout the nation. They show that public education in the United States is growing; that schools everywhere are working diligently to increase both the quantity and quality of their service to the country's youth.

I

GUIDANCE AND STUDENT ADJUSTMENT ACTIVITIES IN RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

An Orientation Guidance Program in a Large Rural School District

Here is a four-year high school that serves an area of over 3600 square miles. About 75 percent of its students travel to and from home by bus, some riding as many as 116 miles every day. Youth enter the school from sixteen elementary schools which vary in size from a one-teacher, twenty-five-pupil school to a twenty-five teacher, 700-pupil school. Most of the youth live on farms, but some come from business, shopkeeping, and professional families. The parents of a number are engaged in mining. The pre-high-school experiences of these young people, both in home and school, make an orientation type of guidance very important. Among the induction procedures reported by the high school were the following:

1. A spring interview is held at all the elementary schools with each eighth-grade student to make out the program for his first

high-school year. At this interview, past educational records, teacher recommendations, and parent and student plans and requests are considered.

2. Ninth-grade group guidance is given in orientation sections.

3. Remedial English is provided for those who need it.

4. Standardized tests, checklists, questionnaires, inventories, autobiographies, health cards, observations, interviews, and case studies are used to obtain an understanding of each student.

5. Cumulative record files are kept for all students.

6. Guidance meetings with ninth-grade teachers, and group meetings of teachers and parents are held.

7. Superintendents, principals, and teachers of the elementary schools and the high school attend joint meetings.

8. Research is conducted by the ninth-grade counselor, who meets in committee with the other school counselors.

Guidance for Senior Students in a Small Rural School

This high school has a faculty of only six teachers, including the superintendent and the principal. Some of the program features are:

1. Each teacher acts as counselor, both in and out of the classroom.

2. The two administrators serve as guidance directors and maintain cumulative files for each student.

3. The school subscribes to a guidance service which provides periodic bulletins and teachers' guides.

4. Particular emphasis is placed upon the guidance of new students and seniors.

5. Each twelfth-grade student has at least one individual conference with the principal or superintendent.

6. During the last semester, a series of class meetings is held for group senior counseling.

7. The school library maintains a special shelf and files of material on vocations.

8. Local business and professional men are called in to provide firsthand information on vocations of interest to seniors.

9. In May, a career day is held, at which time college, professional-school, and trade-school counselors are invited to meet with seniors and their parents.

10. Special discussion groups dealing with occupations such as teaching, nursing, agriculture, and mechanical trades meet separately for those who wish to attend them.

11. Seniors are encouraged and assisted to visit higher education schools within driving distance.

12. Supplementing the program, films dealing with various careers are shown.

Guidance Leads to a Revised Curriculum and a New Trade School in a Rural Area

In this rural high school, guidance activities have produced these developments:

1. As a result of the high school's guidance efforts, a new trade school was opened in the community several years ago.

2. The counseling work which led to the organization of the trade school arose from an increasing awareness of the need to study students individually.

3. Achievement tests revealed such marked differences among students that the curriculum and teaching procedures had to be revised to meet individual abilities.

4. A school philosophy developed that asserted that all students were potential good citizens, regardless of I. Q.

5. In a study of dropouts made during the past year it was found that the holding power of the school had greatly increased.

6. The revised curriculum and personal type of guidance are believed to be the reason for bettered conditions.

All Counseling Is Given by Classroom Teachers in This Rural High School

In another high school, which organized its guidance department recently, the major emphasis is upon helping students to make decisions related to educational, vocational, and personal plans.

1. All counseling is done by classroom teachers, who have one to four periods a day set aside for guidance work.

2. Occupational and educational information is provided in the ninth-grade social studies classes.

3. Guidance bulletins giving recent local, state, and national occupational and educational information are circulated regularly.

4. The guidance department assists students to find both part-time and full-time employment and cooperates with the school's business department and the state employment service in finding jobs for all students not planning on further education after graduation.

5. Vocational files are kept in the classrooms and library.

6. A student personnel service committee, composed of the school physician, psychometrist, nurse, guidance director, guidance counselor, principal, and at least one teacher, considers extreme emotional problems among students.

7. The guidance department assists with curriculum development and supplies material to teachers of family living, occupations, home maintenance, and consumer education.

A Social Problems Course for Twelfth-Year Youth in a Rural High School

Here is a senior social problems course, established on a voluntary basis, that has proved so valuable that 90 percent of the school's twelfth-year students have elected to take it during the past two years.

1. The course begins each year with an inventory of student problems, and broadens into more complex areas.

2. Problems submitted by students have been found to fit into four broad areas: (a) personal-social development, (b) marriage and family relationships, (c) vocational choice, (d) social problems related to democratic living.

3. Although a good deal of subjectmatter of a formal nature is treated in the course, classroom activity has centered mainly about various forms of discussion.

4. The course is conceived as essentially group guidance; it was initiated to coordinate the guidance program and the social studies.

5. Use has been made of lectures, resource visitors, sociodrama, classroom library, basic texts, library references, current newspapers and magazines, audio-visual materials, aptitude tests, vocational and personality inventories, case studies, and occupational information.

6. Class assignments, to aid in the process of assigning grades, have taken the form of autobiographical material, individual projects, reading reviews, oral reports, and teacher-constructed tests.

7. Criticisms, suggestions for improvement, and further statements of problems and needs have been encouraged, from students and

others. These have been profitably used in strengthening the course.

8. Present and former students have been enthusiastic over the values of the course. Studies have yet to be made of specific changes in student behavior in such areas as improved social adjustment, the development of democratic attitudes, and better vocational choices.

A Course in Family Living in a Rural High School

The need for a course in family relationships in this school was made evident by a survey which showed that 18 percent of the students were affected directly by divorce, involving parents or brothers and sisters.

1. Ninety-two students, whose average age was sixteen, were polled on the subject, "Love as a teen-ager sees it." In answer to the question, "Have you ever been in love?" 49 said yes, 16 weren't sure, and 27 said no. Whether these young folk knew what love means is felt to be beside the point; the important thing is that youth of this age live under emotional stresses that can affect their school work, their home life, and their attitudes toward the world in general.

2. Confidential questionnaires during the past three years have shown that 52 percent of all students say that their parents have not been frank in discussing personal problems.

3. Teachers of Family Living—all married men with children—do not pose as "founts of wisdom" or as "Quiz Kids with all the answers." They encourage students to think through their own problems.

4. Areas of study include: (a) learning how to get along with others, (b) making a wise choice of a mate, (c) economic problems of family life, (d) meeting family crises constructively.

5. Booklets, such as the Life Adjustment Series and the Consumer Education Series, are used in conjunction with magazines and newspaper articles. Film and film strips are used.

6. Class activities include question and answer periods, discussion groups, oral and written reports, and surveys.

7. Field trips to study effective buying are conducted.

8. The course is highly regarded by other teachers and parents. Parents and guardians of all students taking the course were asked about their view of it; almost 99 percent approved.

A Demonstration Counseling Center in a Large City High School

This city school system reported upon a demonstration high-school counseling center which was operated for five years on an experimental basis. Among the procedures, purposes, and conclusions described were these:

1. The staff included a counselor, a visiting teacher, a nurse, a stenographer, a typist-clerk, a part-time physician, and a part-time dentist.

2. The center was housed in a suite of three classrooms: one with private interviewing offices, one used for testing, and one for a medical and dental clinic.

3. In addition to the services indicated by the staff personnel, job placement and employment permit services (already available in the central offices of the school system) were set up on a decentralized basis for the students of the individual school.

4. The purposes of the counseling center were (a) to supplement the regular counseling program of the school, and (b) to study intensively the progress of students, with special reference to personal problems, subject failures, and elimination from high school.

5. Among the conclusions reached from this guidance experiment were:

a. Intensive counseling appeared to reduce the number of failures and dropouts slightly.

b. While few dropouts were prevented, students leaving school did so with a friendly feeling and with some plan in mind because of the counseling they had received.

c. Dropouts resulted from serious personal and school maladjustments.

d. Counseling improves personality development and academic achievement.

e. Individual tutoring on a voluntary basis receives little student interest and acceptance.

f. Curriculum changes of a functional nature were needed.

g. Teachers should accept responsibility for meeting personal as well as subjectmatter needs of students.

Group Discussion of Personal Problems in a City High-School Guidance Program

As a part of the guidance program in another city school system, group counseling in family life education, with emphasis on the sex-social aspects of living, has been organized recently. Among the procedures adopted were:

1. Small groups of ninth- and twelfth-grade boys and girls meet separately once a week for six weeks or more in an informal atmosphere with specially trained men and women teachers.
2. In these meetings there is no course of study, no assignment, no examination, no grade, and no attendance record.
3. Meetings are announced as providing opportunity for discussion of personal problems; attendance is voluntary.
4. Questions are seldom answered directly by the instructor.
5. Discussions are so directed that students make their own decisions upon the basis of values received.
6. From time to time, family life education films are shown.

The sponsors of this guidance project described its success thus:

> It is difficult to portray the spirit of justice and desire for better living and security that grows out of these conferences. The degree of idealism that develops in the groups is far beyond that which a teacher or person outside the group would dare to attempt.

Developments in Human Relations and Mental Health in a Large City School System

This program is designed to reduce friction between youth, teachers, and other individuals and groups—families, employers, members of other races and religions.

1. The specific objective is to work with teachers to provide school situations more conducive to good human relations.
2. Two chief means are used: (a) approach through teachers' study of principles of good mental health, (b) approach through intercultural education and democratic human relations.
3. A special university course in education for mental health was set up for teachers. In two years, 390 out of about 2500 teachers took the course. It included lectures by a psychiatrist experienced with youth, films and recordings on mental health, and extensive

group discussions. Six months after the course was taken, teachers were sent follow-up questionnaires. Response showed that (a) teachers believed they were helped to improve relations with students and adults; (b) they were enabled to make the classroom atmosphere conducive to mental health. Principals say the course changed teachers' relations with youth.

4. In addition to the above course, three-session institutes were provided for teachers who did not enrol in the course itself. Also printed materials, such as *Teacher Listen, the Children Speak,* were distributed and discussed at teachers' meetings.

5. Each secondary school formed a teacher committee on democratic human relations.

6. An interschool sportsmanship council was organized by students to help build good player and student-body sports relations.

7. Teachers, administrators, and students agree that both the mental health and democratic human relations approaches have aided in producing happier, better adjusted people.

II

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION DEVELOPMENTS IN RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

New Vocational Training Opportunities for Non-College Youth in a Rural High School

Prior to 1947, this high school made only very limited provision for the vocational training of its students, except for those who were college bound. Now a genuine effort is being made to meet the needs of boys and girls, whether they plan to go to college or not.

1. Before 1947, commercial courses were offered only on a postgraduate basis. Now, students in the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades may take typing, bookkeeping, and shorthand. Those who wish to may enrol for an additional year of commercial education.

2. Since 1948, the home economics department has operated on a twelve-month basis. Each girl has a project which she conducts at home, such as interior decorating, improvement of lawns, planning and preparing meals, and child care. A course in home nursing is sponsored by the school and the state department of education.

3. Summer camping trips are conducted to provide wholesome recreation and to help students learn to work together.

4. The general shop classes have been expanded to include instruction in woodworking, electricity, welding, sheet metal, and painting. Students enrolled in trade classes may become skilled carpenters.

5. A twelve-acre farm is maintained where youth study the soil, plan crops, and supervise the maintenance, operation, and harvesting of produce.

6. The school also operates a cannery in which the food raised by the students is prepared and canned. The finished product is then sold to the school cafeteria. Funds received make the school farm self-supporting.

7. Each boy in agriculture classes has a supervised home farming project.

8. Together, the boys have built a greenhouse in which plants are raised to beautify the grounds. Surplus plants are sold; the money is used to buy new varieties.

Extended Vocational Education for Rural Post-High-School Youth

In this rural school's area, there are no agencies other than the school itself, which can or will aid youth to adjust vocationally after they have graduated or dropped out of high school. Few youth in the community are able to continue their education beyond high school; whatever is done for them must be done by the school.

1. Extended services were organized by the board of education and the superintendent to assist post-high-school young people until they could become established in the community.

2. Vocational agriculture classes have been developed for youth who wish to remain on the farms that surround the school community. The school also cooperates in the federally sponsored vocational agriculture program for veterans.

3. Vocational cabinet making is also taught to boys; together with farming, this provides the best prospect for financial security for youth in this area.

4. In addition to farming and cabinet-making courses, the school offers office practice and housekeeping instruction. Further experience for girls is gained through work in the school lunchroom.

5. Training in actual, supervised work has been valuable to youth, both for economic reasons and from a social and moral standpoint.

6. Post-high-school young people have come to look to the school as a guide to assist them in meeting personal problems.

A Recently Established Program of Terminal Education in a Rural Area Junior College

Several years ago a five-year study of this community's junior college problem revealed that whereas 69.2 percent of the school's graduates were terminal students, only 18 percent of the school's offerings were terminal in nature. Furthermore, less than 20 percent of those entering junior college continued until graduation, and although the junior college was tuition-free, a large percent of high-school graduates appeared to prefer unemployment to junior college attendance. It seemed clear that both actual and potential junior college students felt the institution was offering little to meet their interests and needs.

1. After consultation with university specialists, a survey was conducted among students and previous junior college graduates to determine needed changes in the program. This survey showed need for vocational courses in agriculture, machine trade, terminal business education (especially selling), auto mechanics, building trades, and welding. There was also found to be a demand for adult education.
2. As the result of the five-year study and subsequent survey, the community voted, four to one, a bond issue to construct and equip a building for vocational services.
3. The local chamber of commerce was vitally interested in agriculture in the area. This interest resulted in the employment of a vocational agriculture instructor for the school. Agriculture is now one of the most important subjects.
4. Today the school has increasing enrolments in distributive education, office practice, auto mechanics, carpentry, machinist trades, and welding. At times, it has conducted special classes to help new industries entering the area, such as pottery decoration, garment manufacturing, and aircraft sheet metal working.
5. The school gives first choice to local students, but serves youth from outside the district when facilities permit. While the school now accommodates an area of about twenty-five miles radius, it still is forced to turn down applicants for admission at the rate of at least one a day.
6. Two factors are under constant study in the school: (a) What are the job opportunities for students? (b) Are the school's vocational students acceptable to the trade, industry, or business? In

general, placement has been good, and the students' work satisfactory on the job.

7. The chamber of commerce now considers the school such an asset to the community that it advertises it over the air as an inducement to prospective industries for entering the area. Business and industry look to the school as the primary source of beginning workers.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION DEVELOPMENTS IN URBAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Post-High School Vocational-Technical School Services in a Large City System

During the last five years, this large city school system has established vocational-technical education services for youth who have finished high school or who have equivalent qualifications. The objective in setting up this program was to train people for technical occupations not requiring engineering college preparation.

1. Courses cover such varied fields as machine design, electronics, commerce, laboratory technics, graphic arts, and metal manufacturing technics.

2. Each course provides training in skills and understandings necessary for initial employment on the trade or craft level.

3. Each course also has a technical content of science, mathematics, and associated subjects that prepares students for promotion from crafts to technical positions in their field.

4. Students may attend full or part time, as long as is necessary to achieve employability in a particular craft, to the exclusion of the technical subjects required for a technician's position. In this limited program a certificate of specific accomplishment is granted. If the entire program in a field is taken, the graduate receives a vocational-technical diploma.

A Job-Upgrading Program in a Large City High School

In order to improve the employability of out-of-school youth in this city, the superintendent of school, with the cooperation of the Council for Youth Service, in 1949 established what was tentatively called the Job-Upgrading Program. The purpose of the program was to provide an opportunity for school dropouts, sixteen to twenty-one years old, who have had difficulty in getting or holding jobs. Its efforts are directed to teaching young people how to be successful workers, desirable members of society, and better adjusted personally. More specifically, it seeks to encourage youth from relief families to become self-supporting, and to encourage students who have dropped out of school to return whenever possible.

1. The program consists of a six-week counseling and training period. Students meet each morning in groups of twenty with a teacher for individualized instruction. If ready to do so, students go directly from this training period into private employment, in which for three months their work is checked upon by the instructor.

2. If students are not ready for employment after the six-week training period, they are given further training or may be placed for six weeks in one of the social agencies of the city to gain work experience. Students work for four hours in the afternoon, while continuing class in the morning.

3. During the training period, a few youth come to realize the handicap of insufficient education, and return to the regular school.

4. Students are referred to the program for the most part by the department of public welfare, the department of guidance and placement, and the attendance department of the city schools. Other agencies also make some referrals.

5. Attendance in the program is voluntary and its atmosphere informal. Conference tables, radio, attractive bulletin boards, book cases, mirror, cosmetic table, morning newspaper, map of the city, and telephone are parts of the equipment. A large rack with forty-five partitions holds various individual lesson sheets with such titles as, "What Employers Want," "Your Personality and Your Job," and "Answering the Telephone." Each youth has a folder in which he can keep his materials and progress chart.

6. Training in arithmetic and reading is provided as needed. Instruction is given in how to fill out application blanks and how to behave during job interviews. All students take intelligence, reading, and aptitude tests. Results of these indicate that the average I.Q. of youth dropping out of high school is about 17 points lower than that of youth who remain in school.

7. Two hours a week are devoted to teaching good grooming practices.

8. Visits are made to business and industrial establishments. Junior chamber of commerce members plan these excursions; junior league members provide transportation.

9. In all activities, such basic requirements as promptness, good manners, teamwork, speed, and accuracy are stressed.

10. During the first year, about one-half of the youth interviewed decided to undertake the program. In 1950, with better developed techniques, about three-fourths of those interviewed embarked upon the training course.

11. Although too little time has passed for formal evaluation, two classes have now been added. School, community, and employers' continued interest in the program appears to indicate that it is meeting needs in a largely neglected area in secondary education.

An Expanded Work Experience Program for City School Youth

Although a limited amount of work experience for secondary school students had existed in this large city school system for a number of years, until recently it had little acceptance by employers and not much status in the total school program. During the last years of World War II, the need for workers became so great that many areas of employment that had long been considered impracticable for students were opened up. With the passing of the war urgency, employers' doors remained open to young people in school, and in 1946 work experience became an established subject in the school curriculum.

1. The many wartime work-school programs which were variable among thirty-six high schools were appraised, and the best elements of each adopted. On this foundation, basic principles, general policies, and immediate objectives were formulated.

2. Senior high-school students were offered work experience on the same basis as other subjects. It is now considered an integral part of youth's general education experience.

3. Supervised student work, in an approved program of at least 200 hours per semester, is granted regular credit toward graduation. Performance is measured according to adult standards.

4. As the work experience program can be readily extended to meet future emergency employment needs, the schools are providing not only valuable vocational adjustment for youth, but added resources for the community.

III

COMMUNITY AND SCHOOL RELATIONS IN RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

A Rural High School as the Center of Community Life

The high school in this community provides the meeting ground for community interests. It reports difficulty in determining whether its good community relations arise from community need or from the school's interest in, and welcome to, community groups; probably from both.

1. The process of building sound community relations was, at first, slow and cautious. Early impetus arose from assistance given by school personnel to community groups.
2. Gradually lay people came to consider the school as a friendly and valued part of the community.
3. Now school buildings are sought as meeting places for groups of all types. The Kiwanis Club holds its regular dinner meeting in the school lunchroom after the students have been served. This group has established a fund for meal tickets for needy students.
4. Adult study groups in vocational agriculture meet at the school. Other adults use the shop facilities to learn cabinet making. The school gymnasium offers men interested in sports participation an opportunity at times that will not interfere with student use. At least one adult group is in session in the school each evening.
5. An annual community health center benefit is held at the school, with church, civic, and fraternal organizations cooperating in fund-raising activities. Community clubs and church groups have learned to plan many of their activities around the school. The school cooperates in every possible way in helping them arrange their programs.
6. As a result of community interest, the school's principal building is the most beautiful in the area. The citizens who voted the bonds to build it are proud of it, as are the youth for whom it was primarily designed.
7. It is expected that present fine community-school relations will continue, and that school services will be constantly expanded. In return, the community will further serve the school in securing needed improvements, both for the students and for all people in the area.

School Publicity and Public Relations as a Significant New Rural Development

This school said that improved public relations has been their most important development in the last five years.

1. The school takes the public into complete confidence in every school activity and project, giving all facts and explaining every objective. The superintendent writes a column for the weekly newspaper entitled, "Your School and You." In it, various phases of schoolwork, finance, activities, and needs are discussed. The school's accomplishments are also explained.

2. Membership in community activities is urged among faculty members.

3. Student participation in promoting good school publicity is encouraged. It is the belief of the school that one of the best forms of public relations is student approval of the school program.

4. Frequent letters are written to parents. Open houses are held. Recently, parents were invited to the school in the afternoon, personally to receive their children's report cards and to discuss their progress with the teachers. Of a total of 144 families sending children to the school, 132 parents were represented at this event.

5. A large part of the money for co-curricular activities is still outside the regular school district budget. A one-evening fund-raising campaign for such activities brought $1500 from the community for these activities a short time ago. The feeling that the school is an essential part of the community is constantly growing.

A Community Council on Education Helps Improve an Agricultural Area School Program

In this rapidly growing town in an agricultural area, the superintendent of schools recently retired after fifty years of continuous service. When a new superintendent was employed, he and the board of school trustees engaged the services of a staff of educational specialists to survey the schools and make recommendations for improvement. The report of these experts was presented to the community, with the request that the community help the schools to build a more adequate program of education for children, youth, and adults. To this end, a community council on education was organized.

1. The community council is composed of lay citizens, high-school youth, teachers, and school administrators.

2. The council assists in (a) informing the community of the needs of the schools, (b) developing plans of action for immediate improvement, (c) planning a long-range program of education, and (d) keeping before the people the need of a continuing program of school-community betterment.

3. An advisory council of teachers, principals, the director of instruction, and the superintendent serves as a steering committee for the community council.

4. A long-range and comprehensive plan for the improvement of the schools has been prepared. It includes seven areas of interest: (a) the purposes of education in a democracy, (b) school plant, (c) school staff, (d) curriculum and instruction, (e) school administration, (f) school finance, and (g) evaluation.

5. A work-conference is held prior to the opening of the schools in the fall. Participants include teachers, lay citizens, administrators, board members, consultants, and high-school youth.

6. The press, radio, local organizations and individual citizens have demonstrated remarkable interest in, and support of, the schools since this program was developed.

COMMUNITY AND SCHOOL RELATIONS IN URBAN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

The Expanded Use of Community Resources in a Large City School System

This large city school system opened its comments on the use of community resources with the assertion that "In no other city is there a more widespread feeling of dependence upon the public schools for the better things that citizens wish for their city." The secondary schools of the city report a constant effort to extend school-community contacts, in order to give youth an understanding that will lead to lifelong devotion to improvement in civic affairs.

1. Regular visits are made by groups of students to sessions of the city council and civil courts. Recently, the bar association sponsored a three-day program in which senior students met and observed in action important attorneys and judges. Class discussions of what had been learned of equality under law followed this program.

2. During the preparation of a new city charter, a citizens' charter committee met in a week-long seminar with secondary-school teachers and heard the intricacies of the document explained by the charter commission. This meeting carried over into the classrooms, and thence to the homes of the community. Teachers and students continue to attend charter commission meetings regularly. Two in-service courses for teachers on improved city government are also being given.

3. The schools take an active part in city planning. At the present time, school hours are being spent by groups of high-school boys in back-yard clearance and the development of recreational space. This work is supervised by teachers.

4. Students participate in community chest agency work, through visits to social agencies, money-raising campaigns, and personal service in hospitals, on playgrounds, and elsewhere.

5. Knowledge of teachers and students regarding the industrial life of the city is developed by day and night visits to manufacturing plants, and by a course entitled "Know Your City."

6. Human relations within the community are studied in the schools through a wide variety of activities. A Fellowship Commission, representing some eighty social agencies, maintains a Fellowship House in which students work. Many other organizations and study groups educate both students and teachers in personal, social, racial, and religious group problems.

7. The schools provide many cultural opportunities for students, through visits to museums and an annual Art Field Day. Great numbers of students are also given free opportunities to attend orchestra concerts, operas, and the best plays and motion pictures. The organizations presenting these cultural attractions cooperate gladly with the schools, knowing that their future patrons will be the boys and girls now in the schools.

A New Public Relations Department Aids Community Understanding of City School Needs

Recently this school system established a full-time public relations department to increase community understanding of school problems, needs, and services. In the face of increasing demands by other governmental agencies for tax money, the schools feel that, if they are to insure for public education a proportionate share of tax funds, they must increase public knowledge of local youth requirements.

1. Information released by the schools has stressed the teaching of citizenship, the fundamental skills, and how the schools may better serve the needs of the people.

2. This year for the first time, a Business-Industry-Education Day was held. Secondary schools were dismissed for a half day, and teachers toured business houses and plants. Students worked in various firms throughout the day.

3. Beginning this year, business education teachers are visiting offices to study working procedures and to gain a better understanding of employer problems.

4. A cooperative schoolwork program has been developed, with classwork for half the day, on-the-job work in the remaining half.

5. A business education forum was launched this year, with businessmen present to explain their work to students.

6. The school administration has encouraged wide use of school buildings by community groups.

7. Adult education in home and family life seeks to effect closer school-home relations. Parents of children about to enter school are encouraged to attend school orientation programs. More than 10,000 mothers attended in 1949-50.

8. The results of the new public relations program have been most satisfactory. There is an increased feeling of community confidence in the schools and the education program. This is evidenced concretely by a tax increase election which recently carried by fifteen to one, and by two bond elections within less than five years, carrying by thirteen to one, and twenty three to one, respectively.

IV

RECENT CURRICULUM ADJUSTMENTS IN RURAL SECONDARY SCHOOLS

A Rural Area High School Plans a Community Living Curriculum

Not long ago, this high school found that far too many of its students were "living for the day when they were old enough to drop out of school." The primary reason for this situation was that the school's curriculum did not meet the needs and interests of these young people, none of whom planned on going to college. Practical curriculum adjustments were made to provide a program of broader opportunity.

1. Courses have been organized in English and history for students who have no interest in college. Reading and work materials in these courses are selected for their suitability to student concerns and abilities.

2. The school's objective is now to find out "where the student is, and go as far with him as possible." This objective at present permeates courses in many fields, such as art, industrial arts, homemaking, mathematics, business, driver education, and family living.

3. With a constant goal of making the school interesting and worthwhile for every student, teaching methods better suited to many student needs have been devised.

4. The state in which this school is located has a law requiring a major elective sequence of three units in a specialized field. For certain students, this requirement has proved a barrier, because of the difficulty of the sequence fields. With the approval of the state department of education, the school has developed a new sequence, called "The Community Living Curriculum," for these students. It includes courses chosen by teachers and guidance counselors which are within the scope of all students' practical interests and capacities: Occupations and Home Maintenance for the ninth grade; Practical Mathematics for the tenth grade; Salesmanship, Family Living, Consumer Education, and Business Management for the eleventh and twelfth grades.

5. An important advantage of the Community Living sequence comes to college preparatory students. While few of them have time to enrol in these courses, valuable as they are to any youth, the chief benefit comes from changing a large group of uninterested, noncooperative students into tolerant, cooperative, and sometimes eager students. This change has improved the quality of instruction throughout the school.

A High School Joins with the Community To Provide Health Education and Service

The nearest doctor lives thirty miles from the community in which this rural high school is located. Until three years ago, neither the school nor community had any medical health facilities. A public health nurse managed to visit the school about once a month. Real izing the urgent need both for health services and health education, the community leaders and school officials joined forces to establish a health center to operate in connection with the school.

1. In order to raise funds for the health center, voluntary contributions were taken, membership certificates were sold, a carnival was held, and an auction of livestock and other articles contributed by ranchers, farmers, and businessmen was conducted.

2. With the proceeds from these efforts, and $2000 contributed by the state health foundation, a building was acquired, remodeled, and equipped. It contained an examination room, an emergency ward with two beds, a dentist's office, a nurse's office, a waiting room, and a furnished apartment for a nurse who would serve both as public nurse and school nurse. This unit went into operation in the fall of 1948.

3. Today the community has prenatal, cancer, and tuberculosis clinics in the center, held regularly with doctors provided by the state board of health. A private physician uses the center's examination room two days a week.

4. Most of the nurse's time is devoted to the school, where she has organized clinics with medical, dental, and eye specialists.

5. Health instruction is now given in the fields of personal and community hygiene, communicable disease control, mental hygiene, nutrition, family life, and safety education.

6. This program shows how a small, isolated community can use its educational, community, and state resources to provide services and education unattainable without united effort.

More Effective Use of Audio-Visual Education in a Rural High School

After much experiment upon the part of teachers, students, and the administrator, this rural high school now feels that its use of audio-visual aids has at last "grown up." Despite limited funds for the purchase of equipment, the school has persisted in its belief that yearly additions to its audio-visual facilities were well justified as motivations of interest in learning:

1. Until recently, films were shown largely for their entertainment value. Neither teachers nor students realized how to use them effectively as learning resources.

to show a range of reading competence extending from fourth-grade through twelfth-grade standards.

2. Many high-school students' abilities are such that they will never be capable of going beyond sixth-, seventh-, or eighth-grade reading levels.

3. Teachers cannot justify a school curriculum designed to meet the needs of only the superior ranges of ability; every youth has a right to expect and experience a high-school education adjusted to his needs and the development of his interests and capacities.

4. Standards of student performance will be satisfactory if students are working with materials adapted to their abilities.

5. All teachers are responsible for helping students read and interpret textbooks and other materials essential to the mastery of the courses taught.

6. All youth who work to capacity should receive full credit, regardless of the level at which they learn. Proper guidance will prevent them from entering courses beyond their capacities.

In the light of these agreements, a program of continuous reading improvement was set up.

1. The primary responsibility is assigned to the English classes. Students are grouped in these classes according to reading level, determined through testing, cumulative records, and counselor's recommendation.

2. Teaching ranges from remedial instruction to reading on a highly interpretative level.

3. Teachers anticipate reading difficulties in vocabulary, word meaning, concepts, and unfamiliar events.

4. Instruction is given in such specific skills as identifying main ideas and supporting details, generalizing, classifying, comparing and contrasting ideas, justifying statements, determining cause and effect relationships, interpreting figurative language, noting descriptive words and phrases, and making inferences.

After several years of effort, the schools testify to these results:

1. Many students in remedial classes gain enough power to be placed in classes on their normal-grade level.

2. Students given help in remedial classes show fewer failures in their other school subjects.

3. Retarded students give evidence of enjoying happy, successful high-school experiences.

4. Classes on average and accelerated reading levels cover more material and carry out more activities when not slowed down by retarded readers.

5. There are fewer disciplinary problems, because of less learning frustration.

6. Students appreciate the need for and value of the reading adjustment curriculum.

Driver Education as a Part of a City School Safety Program

The program of driver education in this city extends throughout its nine high schools and two evening high schools. The object of the program is to help youth and adults acquire the knowledge and develop the habits, skills, and attitudes necessary for safe and efficient use of motor vehicles.

1. Classroom instruction is given in the eleventh grade.

2. Behind-the-wheel driver training is given in the twelfth grade for students sixteen years of age or older.

3. Both classroom and behind-the-wheel instruction are given adults in the evening high schools.

4. Classroom instruction includes learning of driver responsibilities and qualifications, physical laws that apply to moving vehicles, state and local traffic laws, the effect of public opinion on law enforcement, regulations for pedestrians and bicyclists, dangers of playing children, and driver sportsmanship. Each student takes tests to determine color vision, eye dominance, field of vision, glare acuity, reaction time, hand-steadiness, and hand-strength.

5. The schools are loaned dual-control cars for behind-the-wheel training by local automobile dealers, under the sponsorship of the automobile club. The instructors who use these cars have been specially trained and accredited for their work.

6. A study is now being conducted to evaluate the results of the three years of the driver education program.

A Program of Camping Education for Secondary School Youth

In the belief that the community in this city was becoming too remote from the natural environment of mountains, forests, and streams, the secondary schools have recently established a program of camping education.

1. Among the purposes of the program are: experience in cooperative outdoor living; field study of conservation, general science, biology, physics, astronomy, and geology; opportunity for inspiration leading toward expression in writing, music, and art; work experience in building camp structures, check dams, paths, and bridges; and the development of an appreciation of out-of-doors life and its many leisure-time delights.

2. The camp is located in a state park seventy miles from the city. It is operated by a city-county camp commission, which provides building maintenance, a camp director, cooks, and handymen. The program is planned cooperatively by the city, county, and school authorities. Three teachers are stationed at the camp.

3. From thirty to forty youth, accompanied by a teacher, may attend the camp for a week, departing from the city on Monday morning and returning Friday afternoon. At present, eighth- and eleventh-grade students are eligible. Until the camp facilities are expanded, groups must be restricted to either boys or girls. It is hoped to provide coeducational camping experience in the future.

4. The camp staff holds a camp council meeting with the students shortly after their arrival to plan the week's program. Weather conditions and the needs of particular groups determine general objectives. Among common activities are: camp councils; choosing individual sleeping quarters; mealtime duties; camp cleaning; hikes; study of flora, fauna, geological formations, star constellations, and Indian lore and artifacts; craft work; repairing and renovating buildings; and sharing daily experiences at the evening campfire.

5. Through meetings, and through questionnaires to teachers, parents, and students, constant evaluation of this program of camping education is being made. While new, it is believed to be of great value to secondary youth.

V

DEVELOPMENTS IN STATEWIDE SECONDARY EDUCATION

Among recent developments reported in secondary education on a statewide basis, the following appear to be of unusual significance:

1. The coordination, on a statewide level and on a local school level, of all of the persons and groups who are, or who should be, interested in the high-school curriculum.

2. A thoroughgoing implementation of the "grass roots" approach to improving programs in local schools, keeping the dynamic in the local community.

3. The diffusion of local school study techniques and materials through printed matter that is easy to use and available at no cost to local schools.

4. The encouragement of experimental programs in schools.

5. The development of a statewide feeling of "togetherness" in a significant and challenging enterprise, through workshops, publications, the programs of many organizations such as the state secondary-school principals' association, music educators' association, association of teachers of English, and the state academy of science.

6. The improvement of relations among secondary schools and higher institutions, with particular attention, at this time, upon college entrance requirements.

7. The encouragement of intensive school-community study through "across the board" projects sponsored by the state secondary-school curriculum program.

8. The involvement of lay groups, through consultation and other types of participation, at the local level.

9. The vitalization of teacher education programs in colleges and universities.

10. The reorganization of school districts throughout the state. Between 1944 and 1950, one state reduced the number of its districts from 11,955 to 4580.

11. The development of state, regional, and local councils on secondary education composed of professional and lay members. Over half the districts in one state now have local councils studying education and offering suggestion for improvement.

12. The establishment of regional high schools to serve small towns and rural areas. In one state where there are now only two such schools, over fifty communities are now studying possibilities.

13. The organization of area vocational technical schools. One small state now has twelve such state-operated schools, and is in the process of building two more.

14. State evaluation of secondary schools. One state, which uses the Evaluative Criteria of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, has evaluated about 85 percent of all its secondary schools.

15. The carrying on of programs of counselor training in guidance to supplement college and local in-service training work.

16. The assistance of local secondary-school faculties in identifying problems and discovering ways and means of removing blocks to improvement.

17. The establishment of a state system of youth centers, where students and out-of-school youth can meet and enjoy themselves. One state has nearly 700 community recreation programs in operation under school auspices.

18. The sponsorship and support of camping education.

19. The development of a school health coordinating service, and the extension of a program of financial assistance to schools for health service to youth.

20. State legislation making it mandatory for secondary schools to provide adequate programs of health, safety, and physical education.

☆ ☆ ☆

Chapter 10 is based on reports received from the following schools, school systems, and state departments of education in response to a request for descriptions of what they considered to be their most important developments in secondary education, either originated or brought into general practice during the five years from 1945 to 1950.

SCHOOLS AND SCHOOL SYSTEMS

Antelope Valley Joint Union High School, Lancaster, California
Coffeyville Public Schools, Coffeyville, Kansas
Crossmore School, Crossmore, North Carolina
Detroit Public Schools, Detroit, Michigan
East Hampton Schools, East Hampton, Connecticut
Gloversville Public Schools, Gloversville, New York
Ithaca Public Schools, Ithaca, New York
Iron County School District, Cedar City, Utah
Killdeer Public Schools, Killdeer, North Dakota
Los Angeles City Schools, Los Angeles, California
Montgomery Public Schools, Montgomery, Alabama
Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut

Orangeburg City Schools, Orangeburg, South Carolina
Pasadena City Schools, Pasadena, California
Philadelphia Public Schools, Philadelphia, Pennsylvania
Pike County High Schools, Pikeville, Kentucky
Rochester Board of Education, Rochester, New York
Sunnyside High School, Sunnyside, Washington
Thomson Township Schools, Esko, Minnesota
Tulsa Public Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma
San Diego City Schools, San Diego, California
Wagon Mound Public Schools, Wagon Mound, New Mexico

STATE DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION

California
Connecticut
Illinois
Maine
New York
Pennsylvania
Texas
Virginia

INDEXES

INDEX TO SELECTED TOPICS

(Noted here are pages containing the more important discussions of topics listed; for details, see general index.)

	Farmville	*American City*	*Columbia*	*Reports from Schools*
Athletics	114-15 124	262-63		363
Citizenship Education	82-106	187-88 239-40 242-52	343	
Educational Planning	43-49 120-23 157-60	180-83 191-229 267-72	315-54	365-66 370-71 379-81
Gifted Youth	63 77-81	280 309-10		
Grades XIII and XIV	44-48 73-74 335	234-37 298-99	326-36 351	365-66
Guidance	49-59	189-90 289-301	319 350-51	356-63
Health, Physical Education, and Recreation	108-15 119-26	255-64		361 362-63 375, 381
Out-of-school Youth	44 57-59 122-26	170, 190-91, 192 235-36	319 336-37	364 366-68
Vocational Education	65-81	264-87	331-32	363-68
Work Experience	71-73 163	187 283-86		364, 367 368, 373

GENERAL INDEX

Abilities. *See* Gifted youth; Handicapped; Individual differences
Academic standards, 6, 64
Academy, first, 2
Acceleration of students, 20, 80, 280, 306-307, 310
Accrediting associations, 348
Achievement, intellectual, 51, 62-63, 136-40, 227, 280, 361
  See also Evaluation; Failures
Administration, educational, 20, 27, 156-64, 198, 204-205, 218-19, 334
Adolescence, 45-47, 113-14, 143-44
Adult education, 44, 45, 47, 58, 93, 152-53, 184, 231, 235-36, 306n, 313, 328, 336-37, 369, 373, 378
  See also Out-of-school youth
Advanced secondary education, 44-47, 57, 219, 230, 319, 320, 321, 326-37, 364-66
  need for, 73-74, 217, 234-35, 326, 330
  See also Community colleges; Grades XIII, XIV
Advisers. *See* Counselors
Aeronautics course, 140
Agassiz, Louis, 130
Agricultural agents, 79, 88, 154
Agricultural college, 44, 88, 95
Agricultural extension service, 349
Agricultural production, 34, 36-40, 42, 89, 91-92
  part played by education, 37, 70
Agriculture, Department of, 37, 39
Agriculture, study of, 6, 68-71, 89, 107, 118, 129, 140, 151, 277, 335, 352, 363, 365, 369
  school farm, 70, 160, 164, 364
  science and, 61, 98, 99, 101, 137
  teachers of, 53, 55, 70, 79, 88, 101, 150, 152
American City, 31, 166-83, 265-71
  depression, effects of, 168-71
  employment in, 169, 176, 179, 180, 183, 211, 264
  occupations in, 169, 171, 176-77, 179, 214, 241-42, 265, 267, 268, 269-71, 295
  population of, 169, 184n
  postwar adjustments, 175-80
  war, effects of, 168-69, 171-75
American City Community College
  See Community colleges
American City Planning Commission, 167, 180, 181, 196, 200, 243, 247, 285, 296, 304-305
  See also City planning
American City schools, 166-314
  educational planning for, 191-229
  effect of war and depression on, 37, 171-75, 188, 192-98, 203, 204, 239, 256, 276-77, 280
  enrolment in, 168, 172, 230-31, 264, 274, 288
  organization of, 218-19
  purposes of, 185-86, 231-32, 239, 288
  recent changes in, 183-91
  school camp, 307-309
  school system, 230, (chart) 231
  See also Citizens' Advisory Council on Education; Commission on American City Education
American Federation of Labor, 196
American Youth Commission, 215
Antioch College, 187
Apprenticeship, 76, 275, 276, 279
Argentina, 101
Armed forces, 36, 41, 103, 171, 174, 176
  education in, 20-21, 60, 317
  youth entering, 12-16, 17, 178, 255-56, 347-48
Army, 60, 274, 300, 347, 348
Art, 101, 132-36, 140, 168, 216, 224, 225, 234, 235, 238, 250, 282, 288, 306, 311, 372, 374, 379
  teachers of, 88
  See also Literature and the arts
Asia, 251-52
Astronomy, 140, 379
Athletics, 66, 86, 114-15, 120, 161
  interscholastic, 124, 262-63
  intramural sports, 124, 262-63
  sportsmanship council, 363
  See also Physical education; Recreation

Attendance, compulsory, 3, 44-45, 47, 57, 161, 185, 188-89, 217, 268, 294, 315, 316, 319, 325-26
Attendance, interdistrict, 161, 188-89, 330, 332-33, 365
Audio-visual instruction, 359
  See also Films; Radio; Recordings
Autobiographical material, 357, 359
Aviation. *See* Aeronautics course; Mechanics; Transportation

Beauty, appreciation of, 51, 73, 128, 133-34, 135, 216, 220-21, 238, 249
Beauty shop. *See* Cosmetology
Behavior, 15-16, 21, 378
Bellows, George, 133
Benét, Stephen Vincent, 132
Berea College, 187
Bible, the, 145
Bill of Rights, 67, 100
Biology, 79, 113, 259, 279, 282, 379
Board of education, 364
  American City, 189-90, 198-99, 200, 202, 203, 205, 217, 218, 227n, 257, 261, 264, 267, 308
  Columbia, 319, 323, 336, 337-38, 341, 342, 344
  Farmville, 43-44, 49, 82, 91, 108, 122, 123, 157-60
  See also School trustees
Boussingault, Jean B. J. D., 131
Braille, instruction in, 311
Brazil, 101
British Commonwealth, 251
  See also Great Britain
Buildings. *See* Construction trades; School building and equipment
Bureau of Labor Statistics, 194
Business education, 6, 68-70, 76, 118n, 277-78, 326
  accounting, 235, 332
  bookkeeping, 69-70, 75, 163-64, 363
  business management, 70, 235, 313, 374
  in community college, 281, 313
  office management, 235, 331-32
  office practice, 70, 72, 75, 364
  retail selling, 186, 235, 277, 332, 335, 365, 374
  secretarial, 332, 363, 376
  teachers of, 53, 55, 70, 88-89, 373

Cabinet-making course, 282, 364, 369
Camping, 15, 114-15, 307-309, 363, 378-79, 381
Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education, 7-8
Certification of teachers, 315, 342
Chamber of commerce, 196, 318, 365, 366
Character education, 141-46
  See also Moral and spiritual values
Chemistry, 71, 79, 113, 213, 224, 259, 279
Chief state school officer, 316-19, 338
Child care, 73, 114, 116, 117, 119, 150, 173, 277n, 282, 313, 363
China, 101, 102, 249, 251
Churches, 15, 66, 153, 155, 247, 278n, 295
  and schools, 120, 146, 369
Citizens' Advisory Council on Education, 198, 200-202, 218, 227n, 267, 308
Citizens and education, 9-10, 43, 82, 158, 197, 198, 200, 204, 227n, 318, 330, 338, 370-71, 380
  See also Board of education; Parents
Citizens' groups, 43, 94, 182, 196, 200, 318, 380
Citizenship education, 18-19, 28, 328, 343
  American City, 183, 186-88, 216, 220-21, 223, 238-40
    in common learnings, 228, 238, 239, 242-43, 245-52
    in community college, 251-52
  Farmville, 62, 66-67, 77-78, 82-106, 128, 129, 151, 152
    community studies, 87-89
    democratic living, 84-87
    history and contemporary society, study of, 95-102
    political action, 93-95
    principles of, seven, 84-106
    public problems, study of, 90-93, 96, 103, 229n
    state, national and world affairs, 89-90

  and vocational education, 66-67
  world citizenship education, 16, 19, 66, 89-90, 92-93, 96, 98-102, 125, 131, 238, 249
  See also Community, study of the; Democracy
City council on postwar planning, 196
City life, study of, 183, 242-43, 245-49, 252, 255, 264, 273, 304, 372
  "American City at Work", 241-42, 253, 254, 297
  city planning. *See* City planning
  health, housing, recreation, 243, 246
  student civic activities, 252
  student community service, 243, 246, 248, 252, 264, 304, 372
  voluntary service organization, 243, 252
City planning, 167-68, 180-83
  students and, 173, 183, 243, 247-48, 249, 252, 255, 273, 304-305, 372
  See also American City Planning Commission
Civic competence. *See* Citizenship education
Civilian Conservation Corps, 170, 192, 203, 354
Clubs, 58, 74, 84, 125, 151, 287, 295
College and university, 47, 68, 140, 328, 333-34
  admission to, 59-60, 64, 80, 227, 280, 302, 334, 347-49, 351, 380
  numbers entering, 6, 48
  and secondary school, 6-7, 334
  See also Agricultural college; Community colleges; Schools of education; Teachers colleges; State university
College Entrance Examination Board, 349
College preparation. *See* Curriculum
College preparatory students, 7, 47, 64, 68, 136, 227, 288, 291, 302, 374
  vocational education for, 77-81, 187, 221, 232, 279-80
Columbia, education in, 31-32, 315-54
  See also State aid; State board of education; State department of education; State standards; State system of education
Columbia State Educational Council, 318, 324
Commission on American City Education, 198-229, 267-72, 289, 307
Commission on secondary education, 330, 335, 339
Commission on Teacher Education, 206-207
Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, 7
Committee for Economic Development, 195
Committee of Ten, 7
Committees, lay and/or professional
  American City
    city-wide, 174, 211, 222-23
    on curriculum, 168, 191
    for economic development, 195
    neighborhood school, 174
    school health coordinating, 260
    school health staff and county medical society, 257
    on vocational education, advisory committees on, 210-11, 215, 268-71, 273, 286-87, 296
    on vocational information, 297
  Columbia
    on college entrance, 348
    interim, on education, 316-17
    on postwar planning, 318
    school district planning, 323
    temporary commissions, 330, 335, 339, 342, 346
  Farmville
    county agricultural committee, 66, 83, 88, 94, 154
    on curriculum revision, 86
    on emergency in rural education, 154
    on loyalty, 104-105
Common learnings course, 212, 213, 223-29, 237-54, 257-60, 279n, 291, 302, 309, 312-13
  purposes of, 237-40
  teachers of, 226, 228, 253, 257, 258, 260, 273, 279n, 289-92, 294-95, 297-98, 300-301

- tenth grade, 228, 233, 239, 240-45, 294, 297
  - "American City at Work", 241-42, 253, 254, 297
  - citizenship education, 242-43
  - consumer economics, 243
  - English language, use of, 244
  - family life, 243-44
  - literature and personal problems, 245
  - mathematics, remedial, 244
  - orientation unit, 241
- eleventh grade, 228, 232, 233, 239, 306
  - citizenship education, 245-48
  - history of American civilization, 248-49, 253
  - personal problems and counseling, 245
- twelfth grade, 228, 232, 233, 239, 249-51, 273, 306
  - literature and the arts, 250
  - national and international problems, 249
  - personal problems, 250-51
- community college, 232-33, 239, 251-52, 273
  - action projects, 252
  - areas of the world, 251-52
  - current problems, 251

"Common needs of youth," 28-30
- *See also* Educational needs

Common qualities of youth, 28-29

"Common studies," 219-29, 232, 233
- *See also* Common learnings course; Health; Physical education; Science

Communication, 14, 61-62, 253
- of ideas, 92, 101, 238
- *See also* English; Foreign languages; Reading

Communism, 96, 103, 175, 179, 228

Community activities, 135, 148
- festival, 120, 124-25, 135, 148
- forum, 95, 151, 153, 154-55
- planning, 35, 41, 153-56
- recreation, 119-26, 154, 381
- youth centers, state system of, 381

Community colleges
- American City, 53, 54, 173, 176, 182, 223, 230-37, 241, 305-307
  - adult education, 184, 231, 235-36, 306n, 313, 328
  - citizenship education, 251-52
  - common learnings, 232-33, 239, 251-52, 273
  - curriculum continuity with high schools, 218-19, 223, 230
  - enrolment, 184, 231, 234, 264, 288, 313
  - financing, 218, 236-37
  - guidance, 57, 59, 74-75, 190, 273, 298-99, 303, 313
  - health and physical education, 233, 255, 261, 264
  - high-school students in, 279-80
  - individual interests, 233-34
  - purpose of, 217, 234-35
  - residence halls, 236, 304
  - student body, 189, 231, 235-36
  - vocational program, 184n, 221, 232-33, 271-72, 273, 286, 312
    - offerings, 76, 186, 235-36, 277, 278n, 280-83, 288, 298, 313, 331-32
- Columbia, 47, 326-36, 341, 351, 352
  - adult education, 336-37
  - and high schools, 329, 334, 335
  - legislative authorization, 321, 326-27, 328-29
  - occupational specialization of, 76, 236, 282, 331-32
  - residence halls, 321, 332, 333
- *See also* Advanced secondary education; Grades XIII, XIV

Community Council. *See* Farmville Community Council

Community resources, 14, 15, 16, 20
- American City, 204, 226, 241-42, 246, 247, 273, 278, 292, 297, 314
- Farmville, 78-79, 91, 130, 152
- reports from schools on, 357, 359, 360, 368, 371-72, 373
- *See also* Community, study of the; City life, study of

Community-school relations, 20, 22, 35, 87-89, 93, 142, 152-54, 164, 188, 193, 198, 200-202, 208, 260, 277n, 343
- in adult education, 152

  - community health center, 44, 53, 54, 78, 79, 83, 154, 159, 375
  - community library, 44, 122, 123, 135, 154, 159
  - community recreation center, 44, 119-26, 135, 152, 159, 264, 381
  - reports from schools on, 369-73
  - *See also* Community, study of the; Public Relations
- Community service by students
  - American City, 243, 246, 248, 252, 264, 304
  - Farmville, 67, 70, 83, 88, 162
    - health survey, 111-12
    - leading public forums, 93, 153
    - recreational facilities, 122-23
  - reports from schools on, 372
- Community, study of the, 27, 67, 83, 87-91, 142, 148-49, 151, 155, 226, 229n, 343
  - civic action, 87-89, 93-95, 153, 252
  - health survey, 78, 91, 111-12, 113, 246
  - housing survey, 67, 246
  - improvement projects, 70, 85, 88, 246
  - occupational survey, 53, 54, 67, 86, 88, 111, 156
  - recreational needs, 122, 243, 246
  - scheduling, 148-49, 151
  - *See also* City life, study of
- Community youth council. *See* Youth council, community
- Congress of Industrial Organizations, 196
- Conservation, 39, 42, 73, 82, 156, 192, 337, 379
- Consolidation of school districts, 43, 83, 154, 157, 159, 319, 321, 322-24, 380
- Constitution, U. S., 100
- Construction trades, training for, 186, 235, 269, 271, 277, 332, 364
- Consumer education, 106n, 113, 118, 128, 173, 214, 216, 220-21, 223, 229n, 238, 243, 250, 252, 254, 359, 360, 374
- Consumer Education Series, 360
- Control of education, 9, 192, 218, 315, 329, 333-34, 339-40, 350, 351
- Controversial subjects, 91
- Cooperatives, 35, 70, 71, 72, 75, 88, 155, 270
- Cooperative teacher planning. *See* Teachers
- "Core" courses, 222
- Correspondence courses, 58, 77, 140, 348
- Council for Youth Service, 366
- Council of social agencies, 215
- Cosmetology, in schools, 75, 277, 282
- Counselors
  - American City 76, 189-90, 218, 287, 289-301, 306n, 308
    - class advisers, 254, 273, 290-92, 295, 297, 303, 313
    - common learnings teachers, 226, 228, 253, 257, 273, 279n, 289-90, 298
    - community college advisers, 57, 59, 74-75, 190, 273, 298-99, 303, 313, 351
    - health. *See* School nurse
    - psychiatrist, 292, 300
    - vocational, 279, 290-91, 294, 298
  - counselor-parent-student relations, 50, 51, 52, 55-56, 58-59, 118-19, 145, 357
  - Farmville, 50-52, 55-59, 64, 72, 73, 75, 76, 81, 109-10, 113, 124, 133, 156, 162-63
    - requirements for, 50
    - specialist in psychology and mental hygiene, 108, 113, 119
    - teachers as, 46, 49-51, 79-80, 114, 150
  - reports from schools, 357, 358, 361, 362, 381
  - training of, 50, 300, 301, 381
  - *See also* Guidance
- Credits. *See* Marks and credits
- "Cultural birthright," 126-36
- Culture, understanding of, 17, 28, 62, 92, 98, 100, 126-36, 248-49, 250
  - foreign, 16, 101, 133, 135, 250
- Curriculum
  - adjustments, 1-11, 18-19, 345, 359
    - to community needs and opportunities, 27, 170, 173, 330-31

to military and defense needs, 12-18, 95-96, 171-74, 196-98, 213
to occupational needs and interests, 17-18, 22, 27, 170, 213, 365, 368, 373-74
American City, 168, 173, 185-86, 217-29, 231-37, 277-83
charts of, 53, 149, 151, 233
college preparation, 59-60, 64, 77, 80, 136, 185, 227, 232, 279-80, 309, 334
committee to revise, 86, 168, 191
community college, 76, 186, 217-19, 233, 235-36, 251-52, 278n, 280-83, 298, 328, 331-32
Community Living Sequence, 373-74
continuity of, 47, 214, 217, 219, 223, 254, 334
Farmville, 45-47, 59-60, 61-62, 68-79, 86, 136
reports from schools on, 373-79
state minimum standards, 44n, 315, 320, 335, 339-40, 344-45
vocational, 68-70, 75, 76, 185, 235-36, 277, 278n, 280-83, 286, 288, 298, 313, 328, 331-32
See also Scheduling and sequence
Curriculum, division of, 300
Custodial staff, 259, 260

Declaration of Independence, 100
Deferment, 61
Deficiencies in secondary education, 8-9
Democracy
democratic community planning, 182-83, 209-11, 218, 314
democratic living in school, 84-87, 105, 141, 307, 362
democratic participation, 18, 84, 87-89, 93-95, 105
loyalty to, 19, 103-105, 144
preserving, 12-13, 17, 19, 21
understanding of, 12-13, 18-19, 29, 84-87, 95-103, 128, 132, 145, 247, 359
world, 19, 125
Depression, 34-36, 82-83, 168-71, 188, 191, 203, 239, 341
Differences in youth. *See* Individual differences
"Differential studies," 219-24, 232
See also Individual interests
Distributive occupations, preparation for, 277, 278, 281, 365
Domestic occupations, preparation for, 277, 278n
Dramatics, 123, 124, 133, 135, 161, 235
Drop-outs, 9, 20, 48, 189, 203, 358, 361, 364, 366-68, 373
See also Out-of-school youth

East Indies, 252
Economic conditions and school attendance, 4, 168, 172
Economic interdependence, 52, 55, 274, 297
Economic problems, 18, 19, 22, 27, 28, 52, 95, 103, 118, 133, 137, 177, 179, 180
Economics, study of, 22, 52-55, 118, 128, 129, 133, 170-71, 205, 228, 234, 235, 238, 242, 247, 248, 249, 253, 274
See also Consumer education
Educational needs
American City, 170-73, 179-80, 181, 193, 200-201, 208, 209, 211, 214-15, 222-23
community needs, 9-16, 321, 330, 341, 370-71
and community colleges, 217, 282, 330-31, 334
contemporary, social, 1
Farmville, 78-79
for terminal education, 217, 364-66
of youth, 9, 239, 311-12
"common," 26, 28-30, 45-47, 61, 62
"imperative," 185, 215-16, 217, 220, 223, 224, 228, 231, 255
individual, 26-27, 45-47
military, 12-16
of young women, 16-18
Educational opportunity, 29, 85, 100, 160-61, 315
availability of facilities, 1, 9, 13, 27, 92, 186, 217, 330

- equalization of, 27, 217, 317, 354
- Educational planning
  - American City, 180-83, 191-229, 267-72, 289
    - centralized vs. decentralized planning, 193, 209-11, 218
    - conditions favorable to program improvement, 205-11, 223
    - obstacles to program improvement, 202-205, 206
    - organizing a commission of school personnel and a council of laymen, 198-202
    - policies as to procedure, 208-11
  - Columbia, 315-54
    - advanced secondary education, 326-37
    - community colleges, 326-37
    - consolidation, 322-25
    - finance, 320-22, 329-31, 341
    - legislative program, 316-19
    - schoolhouse planning, 340-41
  - Farmville, 43-49, 82-84, 103-104, 120-23, 157-60
  - nationwide progress, 2, 9-10, 30-31
  - reports from schools, 365-66, 370-71, 379-81
- Educational policies, 157-58, 318, 338-39
  - parents and, 43, 49, 82-83, 201-202, 204
  - state organizations and, 318, 324
  - teachers and, 43, 82, 157, 198, 199-200, 202, 203, 371
  - *See also* Citizens and education; Objectives
- Educational Policies Commission, 2, 30, 106n, 215
- Elective subjects, 6, 148, 149, 151, 220, 221, 232, 234, 235, 237, 287, 306
- Electrical training, 14, 21, 71, 73, 89-90, 117, 118, 140, 164, 186, 267, 281, 332, 364, 366
  - electronics, 14, 267, 281, 366
  - radio and television, 14, 140, 186, 281
  - *See also* Mechanics; Shops
- Electronics. *See* Electrical training
- Elementary school, 43, 84, 87, 120, 121, 123, 125, 129-30, 152, 157, 214, 218, 219n, 300, 311, 321
- Employers' organizations, 66, 200, 210, 269, 286, 296, 304, 346, 349
- Employment of youth, 156, 267, 295, 297
  - conditions affecting, 212, 226, 269-71, 283, 303
  - during the war, postwar and unemployment periods, 170, 192, 285, 303-304, 325-26, 368
  - *See also* American City; Farmville; Student work
- Employment service. *See* Placement service, student; Public employment service
- Employment, U. S., 30, 38, 266
- English, 138, 216, 220, 223, 227, 228, 238, 244, 252, 253, 374, 377
  - remedial, 151, 241, 306, 357
  - teachers of, 53, 55, 212-13, 376
  - *See also* Literature and the arts; Reading
- English Classical School, 2
- English High School, 2
- Enrolment, 3-6, 321
  - American City community college, 184, 264, 288, 313
  - American City high schools, 168, 172, 184, 218, 230, 264, 274, 288
  - Farmville, 43, 44, 45
- Environment of youth, 6, 26, 27, 29, 126-27, 168, 184, 221, 289-95
- Equalization funds, 27, 83, 107, 317, 321
  - *See also* Educational opportunity
- Ethics. *See* Behavior; Moral and spiritual values
- Europe, 101, 102, 251, 252
- Evaluation, 94, 97
  - Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, 380
  - of school program, 360, 362, 363, 365-66, 368, 373, 377-78, 379
  - of secondary schools, 5, 8, 380
  - of students' work, 63-65, 71, 79-80, 280, 301-302, 310, 312, 347-49
  - *See also* Marks and credits; Testing

Evening classes, 58, 74, 151, 152, 184, 190, 231, 236, 279, 283, 299, 305-306, 312n, 313, 319, 336, 378
Exchange of ideas and methods, 9-11, 345, 353, 380
Experimentation, 60
  American City, 208, 211-14, 222, 225, 228, 278n, 306, 307-309
  demonstration counseling center, 361
  local initiative for, 9-11
  state encouragement of, 344-45, 380
Extracurriculum program, 105, 187
  See also Clubs

Failures, 5, 64-65, 189, 361, 377
Family life, 28
  American City, 213, 214, 216, 220-21, 223, 228, 238, 243-44, 250-51, 252-53, 254, 255, 313
    committee study of, 222
  Farmville, 51, 67, 73, 86, 106n, 113, 115-19, 148, 149, 229n
    economic problems of, 117-18
    friendship, courtship, and marriage unit, 114, 116, 119
    personal problems in, 116, 145
    practical skills for, 70, 116-18
    recreational skills for, 125, 133
  reports from schools on study of, 359, 360, 362, 374, 375
  youth's interest in, 17, 65-66, 116, 225-26, 253, 336
Far East, 102
Faraday, Michael, 131
Farm labor, 35, 36-37, 38, 40, 154
Farm machine shop. *See* Shops
Farm school, 70, 160, 164, 364
Farmers' income, 34, 37, 66, 161
Farmers' organizations, 66, 83, 94, 95, 153, 318, 349
Farmville, 31, 34-36
  effects of depression, 34-36, 154
  effects of war, 36-37, 154
  employment in, 48, 53, 67, 68, 78
  future economic situation, 41-42
  organization of, 153-56
  population of, 43
  postwar prosperity, 37-41
Farmville Community Council, 43-44, 91, 94, 104, 111-12, 146, 152, 154-55, 158, 159
Farmville community schools
  effect of war and depression on, 35, 37, 41, 82-83, 95-96
  elementary schools, 43, 84, 120
  See also Farmville Secondary School
Farmville Emergency Council, 154
Farmville School Alumni Club, 155
Farmville Secondary School, 43-165
  enrolment in, 43, 44, 45
  school building, 43-44, 121-22, 159-60
  school farm, 70, 160, 164
  See also Curriculum; Grades XIII, XIV
Federal agricultural programs, 35, 40, 66, 69, 82, 89, 150, 364
Federal aid to education, 218, 351-54
  CCC and NYA, 170, 192, 203, 354
  G. I. Bill, 60, 176, 347, 353
  land grant colleges, 352
  need for, 27, 354
  school buildings, 341
  secondary vocational, 352, 364
  war production training program, 171-72, 193-94, 274, 353
Films, instructional, 53, 55, 75, 133, 241, 249, 250, 297, 358, 360, 362, 375-76
Finance. *See* School finance
Financial training, 69-71, 73, 117-18
  See also Business education
First aid, 15, 113, 152, 197, 274
Folk dancing, 114-15, 123, 124, 133
Foreign aid, 38-39, 89
Foreign languages, 14, 140, 227, 232, 235, 237, 279, 306
  teachers of, 16
Foreign peoples, 16
  See also Culture, understanding of
Foreign policy, 18, 19, 38-39, 82, 93
  study of, 89, 249
  See also International relations
Forestry, 140
4-H Clubs, 66, 70, 155
Franklin, Benjamin, 2
Freedom, human, 18, 19, 41, 92, 96, 97-100, 105, 151, 178, 179

French language, 140
Functions of secondary school, 1-2, 4-8
Future Farmers of America, 66, 155
Future Teachers of America, 79

Geography, 16, 21, 307
German language, 140
Germany, 249
G. I. Bill of Rights, 60, 176, 347, 353
Gifted youth, 6, 29, 63, 72, 77-78, 80-81, 139, 214, 280, 309-310
Government, 179
  and economic situation, 82-83, 88-89, 170-71, 297
  and labor, 212, 270, 272
  postwar planning, 194-96
  reports, 54-55, 67, 75, 251, 253
  study of, 66, 88, 90, 94, 128, 224
  See also Federal aid to education; Federal agricultural programs
Grades VII, VIII, IX, 45, 50, 113, 117, 219, 309, 321, 356-57, 358, 362, 374, 379
Grade X, 46-47, 90-91, 148, 151, 233, 363, 374
  common learnings, 228, 232, 233, 239, 240-45, 253, 294, 297
  community studies, 148
  guidance, 52-56, 148, 214, 241-42, 279, 290, 297
  health and physical education, 108, 111-13, 233, 262
  literature, 245
  science, 130-32, 228, 232-33, 243
  students' interests, 117, 220, 225-26
  vocational education, 232, 233, 291, 363
Grade XI, 90-91, 151, 205, 374, 378, 379
  common learnings, 228, 232, 233, 239, 306
    civic competence, 245-48
    history of American civilization, 248-49, 253
    personal problems, 245
  health and physical education, 113, 306
  vocational education, 232, 233, 325n, 363
Grade XII, 151, 378
  common learnings, 228, 232, 233, 239, 249-51
  family life, 119, 214, 374
  guidance, 57, 130, 250-51, 295, 357, 362
  health and physical education, 114, 197, 264
  literature and the arts, 133-35, 250
  public problems, 90-93, 102-103, 249
  vocational education, 68, 232, 233, 276, 278, 325n, 363, 374
Grades XIII, XIV, 44-45, 47, 48, 140, 151
  family life, 119
  guidance, 50, 57
  public problems, 93, 153
  vocational education, 68, 73-74
  state system of, 161, 319, 321, 328-29, 335-36
  See also Community colleges
Grades, student. *See* Marks and credits
Great Britain, 249
Growth. *See* Personal development
Guidance, 27, 343
  American City program, 168, 189-90, 211, 218, 253, 289-301
  community college, 298-99
  Farmville program, 46-47, 49-59, 85, 164
  out-of-school youth, 57-59, 150-51, 170, 190, 272, 299, 313, 364, 367
  personal problems, 17, 49, 116, 144-45, 245, 250-51, 292, 293-94, 298, 299, 300, 358-62, 364
  recreational, 123
  reports from schools on, 356-63
  state system, 316, 319, 320, 350-51
  students' educational plan, 46, 51, 54, 55-56, 62-63, 65, 67, 75, 77, 161, 257, 279, 287, 290, 356-57, 358-59, 377
  testing, 50, 51, 55, 290, 300
  vocational, 27, 28, 49, 51, 52-55, 74-77, 79-80, 241-42, 273, 290-92, 294-300, 312, 357-59, 367, 374
  See also Counselors

Guidance and pupil personnel service, central office of, 273, 292, 296-97, 299-300

Hamilton, Alexander, 352
Handicapped, education of, 6, 27-28, 64, 80-81, 85, 310-13
Health, 21, 35, 61, 64, 86, 87, 100 101, 108-15, 118, 129-30, 137-38, 149, 151, 174, 216, 220-21, 228-29, 232, 233, 237, 243, 255-64, 381
  community survey, 78, 91, 111-12, 113, 246
  conditions in the community, 229, 243, 254, 259, 260-61, 375
  examinations, 78, 108-109, 256-58, 261
  guidance, 109-10, 291
  mental, 15, 27-28, 113-14, 143, 145, 149, 359, 362-63, 374
  personal health needs, 15, 28, 110-11, 113-14, 274, 375
  physical, 27-28, 55, 113, 255-58
  remedial instruction, 28, 257-58
  teachers of, 53, 55, 70, 88, 229, 254, 258, 259-60, 273-74, 291, 294
  units and projects, 83, 88, 113, 224
  See also Handicapped, education of; Home economics; Physical education; Safety; Sanitation
Health center, 35, 44, 53, 54, 78, 79, 83, 154, 361, 375
Health records, 51, 55, 64, 257, 259
Health services, 15, 28, 35, 41, 42, 90, 108-10, 173, 179-81, 256, 374-75
High school, first, 2
High-school graduates
  going directly to work, 6, 48, 58-59, 217, 276, 299, 363-64, 365
  going into military service, 12-13
  going to college, 6, 48, 58-59, 136, 137, 184-85, 217, 235, 299
History, 140, 142, 145, 151, 187, 224, 225, 229n, 234, 253, 279, 373
  American, 18-19, 95-103, 227, 244, 245, 249
  and civic education, 18-19, 95-103
  reasons for study of, 96
  relationships in, 95-96, 137, 248
  secondary school, 1-8
  teachers of, 213
  world, 18-19, 22, 102, 249
Hobbies, 64, 123, 125, 287
Home demonstration agents, 79, 88
Home economics, 6, 15, 53, 55, 68-70, 71, 73, 107, 116-17, 118, 119, 138, 163, 168, 222, 224, 235, 352, 363
  health instruction, 113, 259
  nutrition, 71, 73, 113, 116, 129, 259, 375
  teachers of, 53, 55, 70, 79, 88, 113, 118-19, 213, 214, 254, 260, 276, 294
Home nursing, 114, 117, 152, 363
Homemaking, 17, 67, 68, 73, 116-18, 138, 140, 152, 186, 214, 277, 288, 295, 297, 313, 335, 336, 364, 374
  home projects, 72, 116-17, 119, 148, 276, 363
  model home, 116, 117, 119, 160
  See also Child care; Family life
Hotel and restaurant occupations, training for, 277, 278n
Housing, 40, 41, 42, 67 168, 172, 180, 181, 182, 224, 255
  study of, 173, 224-25, 243, 246
Human relations, 73, 106n, 238, 362, 363, 372, 377
  See also Democracy; Intercultural education
Human rights, 92, 178
Hygiene. *See* Health; Sanitation

Ideals, 95, 96, 98, 100, 101, 103-105, 143-44, 248-49
Ideological conflict, 17, 18-19, 22, 96, 175
Illiteracy, 92
"Imperative needs of youth," 185, 215-16, 217, 220, 223, 224, 231, 255
India, 101, 102, 252
Individual differences, 23-28, 45, 84-87, 222, 280, 292-95
  abilities, 5, 51, 55, 56, 79, 81, 220,

  234, 242, 278, 294, 299, 302, 309-12, 358, 376-77
  aptitudes, 26, 220, 221, 299
  education adapted to, 9, 26-28, 45-46, 55-56, 59-65, 72, 77, 85, 137, 139, 220, 221, 225-26, 234, 257, 258, 259, 261-62, 278, 288-314, 358, 374, 377
  health, 27, 256-59, 261
  intelligence, 26, 221, 358
  See also Environment of youth; Individual interests; Individual needs; Testing
Individual interests, 51, 55-56
  American City program, 232-34, 287-88
  avocational, 27, 124, 220, 234, 287, 311, 313, 336
  intellectual, 46, 220, 221, 234, 236, 288
  occupational, 27, 46, 54, 61, 65, 71, 163, 220, 225-26, 234, 235, 282, 303, 336
  recreational, 46, 66, 150, 221, 235, 261, 262, 379
  See also Individual differences
Individual needs, 9, 234, 239, 261, 288-314
Industrial and labor relations, 212, 226, 235, 238, 272, 273, 274
Industrial arts, 6, 374
Industrial training. *See* Mechanics
Industry, 53-54, 61-62, 100, 101, 181, 195, 274
  See also Employers' organizations
Inflation, 38, 39, 118, 177, 249
In-service training of teachers, 203, 206-207, 274-75, 342, 362, 372
  extension courses, 275
  in guidance, 292, 300, 301
  in health activities, 260
  summer workshops, 203, 252, 275, 300
Intercultural education, 16, 92, 133, 135, 213, 250, 252, 362
International Labor Organization, 93
International relations, 10, 16, 19, 22, 62, 96
  study of, 89, 102, 249, 251-52
International tensions, 12, 41, 92, 96, 239, 249, 309
Iran, 252
Iraq, 252
Italian language, 140
James, William, 147
Japan, 249, 251
Jefferson, Thomas, 106, 352
Journalism, 161, 282
Junior colleges, 326-27, 328, 365-66
  See also Community colleges
Junior high school, 214, 219, 220, 230, 242, 244, 321, 334
  See also Grades VII, VIII, IX

Kalamazoo case, 3
Koch, Robert, 131
Korea, 61, 178, 251

Labor, 36, 38, 176-77, 193, 195, 201
  organizations, 66, 200, 210, 212, 269, 271-72, 273, 286, 318, 346, 349
  study of, 73, 212, 270-74, 313
Laboratories, 70, 77, 117, 119, 122, 129, 131, 159, 186-87, 259, 277, 278, 304
  See also Shops
Land grant colleges, 352
Latin America, 102, 251
Latin Grammar school, 2
Latin language, 25, 140
Leadership
  community leadership, 63, 146, 152, 153-54, 314
  need for, 29, 63, 309
  rural youth, conference, 95, 156
  state educational, 158-59
  student, 63, 64, 77-78, 85, 93, 122-23, 153, 264, 287
  U. S., 96, 178-79
League of Women Voters, 196, 318
Legislation. *See* School legislation
Leisure activities. *See* Recreation
Lend-lease, 38-39
Liberal arts college, 47n, 60
Libraries, 53, 54, 77, 83, 88, 113, 125, 153, 161, 181, 357, 359
  bookmobile, 35, 123, 125
  Braille, 311
  public, 44, 88, 91, 122, 123, 157, 305
  student work in, 162, 304

Life Adjustment Series, 360
Lip-reading, 311
Literature and the arts, 128, 132-36, 142, 145, 150, 151, 216, 227, 228, 238, 244-45, 249, 250
  aims in teaching, 134-35
  classroom, 133
  and history, 101, 139, 213, 225
  and personal problems, 222, 245
  teachers of, 88, 101, 213
  See also Art; English
Local responsibility for schools
  for control, 9, 192, 339
  for financial support, 218, 321, 330
  for improvement, 9-11, 344, 380
  to meet educational needs, 9-11, 12-13, 192, 315, 330-31, 344
Loyalty, 19, 103-104, 144, 145

Machine shop. *See* Shops
Machine trades. *See* Mechanics
Madison, James, 18, 352
Magazine reading, 91, 213, 253, 359, 360
Manual training, 6
  See also Mechanics; Shops
Marks and credits, 59-60, 63-64, 71, 172, 227, 280, 284, 301, 302, 345-49, 351, 368, 377
  See also College and university; Evaluation; Testing
Marriage. *See* Family life
Mathematics, 14, 21, 79, 129, 132, 140, 214, 224, 227, 232, 234, 235, 237, 244-45, 278, 279, 306, 366, 374
  remedial, 138, 151, 241, 244, 306
  teachers of, 53, 55, 213
Mechanics, 14, 68-70, 118, 140, 335
  airplane, 235, 236, 277, 282, 331
  auto, 186, 235, 277, 281, 365
  farm machinery, 69, 71
  machine trades, 277, 278, 281-82, 365
  metal trades, 186, 235, 277, 278, 281, 332, 365, 366
  need for courses in, 14, 73, 365
  teachers of, 53, 55
  See also Electrical training; Shops
Medical services. *See* Health services
Medical society, county, 257, 260
Mendel, Johann Gregory, 131
Mental health. *See* Health
Metal trades. *See* Mechanics
Military career, 13, 297, 326
  See also Armed forces; Curriculum
Military skills, 15
Moral and spiritual values, 15-16, 20-21, 29, 41, 75, 84-85, 95, 98, 118, 128, 129, 141-46, 216, 221n, 239, 261, 271, 307, 362, 364, 379
Morrill Act, 352
Motion pictures, 92, 101, 120, 253, 372
  See also Audio-visual instruction; Films, instructional
Music, 6, 66, 101, 120, 123, 124, 133-35, 152, 161, 168, 216, 235, 238, 250, 287, 311, 372, 376, 379

National Citizens Commission for the Public Schools, 201
National Education Association, 7
National Institute on Education and the War, 197
National Planning Association, 195
National Resources Planning Board, 194
National Youth Administration, 170, 192, 203, 354
Nature, appreciation of, 134, 135-36, 216, 238, 307, 379
Navy, 36, 60, 274, 300, 348, 353
Needs. *See* Educational needs; Individual needs
Newspapers, 153, 227n
  school, 86, 114, 135, 153
  for school publicity, 204, 370, 371
  student use of, 91, 102, 213, 253, 359, 360, 367
Northwest Ordinance, 352
Nursing. *See* Home nursing; Public nursing services; School nurse
Nutrition. *See* Home Economics

Objectives, 1-2, 7, 8, 32-33, 105-106, 221n, 374
  American City schools, 185-86, 231-32, 239, 288
  citizenship education, 188

  common learnings, 237-40, 242, 245, 250
  community colleges, 334
  Farmville Secondary School, 82-84, 106, 150, 151, 164
  history, 18-19, 96, 105
  literature and the arts, 134-35
  science, 132, 255
  social studies, 96
  vocational, 52, 53, 74, 271-72
Occupational education. *See* Vocational education
Occupational interests. *See* Individual interests
Occupational planning council, 242, 277n, 284, 296, 303, 304
Occupational research bureau, 242, 265n, 296
Occupational survey of Farmville, 53, 54, 67, 86, 88, 111, 156
Out-of-school youth, 1, 9, 150, 184, 192, 211, 235-36, 319, 336-37
  educational opportunities for, 44, 47, 58, 170, 190-91, 209, 230, 272, 313, 328, 334, 364
  guidance of, 57-59, 170, 190-91, 272, 299, 313
  recreation, 122, 124, 125-26, 272
  vocational training, 364, 366-68

Pageantry, 120, 133, 135
Parents, 4-5, 8, 12-13, 17, 116-17, 161, 206, 293-94, 325
  and counselors, 50, 51, 56, 118-19, 145, 161, 258, 290, 292-95, 297
  education, 27, 260, 307-308, 311
  educational policy and, 43, 49, 82-83, 201-202, 204
  and school, 20, 307, 370, 373, 379
  and teachers, 27, 118-19, 161, 174, 197, 213, 227n, 240n, 292-95, 357, 370
Parent-teacher associations, 83, 104, 112, 155, 163, 196, 200, 201-202, 204, 278n, 308, 318, 322, 349
Part-time classes, 47n, 58, 74, 184n, 185, 190, 217, 281, 299, 313, 319, 336, 366
  See also Evening classes
Pasteur, Louis, 134
Peace, education for, 14, 18, 92, 96-102, 175
Personal development, 15, 21, 45, 51, 67, 77, 106-46, 151, 186, 359
Personal history records, 51, 63-64, 76, 113, 257, 290, 294, 295, 300, 301-302, 351
Personal service occupations, 17, 268, 296, 297
Philippines, 251
Phillips Andover, 2
Phillips Exeter, 2
Photography, 140, 282, 288
Physical education, 110, 114-15, 123-26, 149, 151, 168, 174, 197, 232, 233, 237-38, 243, 255-64, 328, 381
  teachers of, 88, 124, 228-29, 254, 258, 260, 273-74, 291, 294
  See also Athletics; Health; Recreation
Physics, 71, 79, 213, 224, 279, 379
Physiology, 113
Placement service, student, 76, 292, 300, 303, 359, 361
  See also Public employment service
Planning. *See* City planning; Educational planning; Postwar planning; Student planning of courses; Teachers
Political action, 93-95, 252
Political groups, 94, 95, 153, 201
Political problems, 18, 19, 38, 90-103, 133, 151
Population, 3, 13, 23, 34, 39, 42, 43, 157, 166, 167, 169, 184, 236
Postwar planning, 180-81, 194-96
Preinduction training, 12-16, 197
Pressure groups, 66, 94
Principal, the, 43-44, 82, 157-58, 189, 196, 197, 198, 199-200, 205, 273, 306n, 359, 371, 380
Printing, 75, 236, 277, 282, 304
Professional organizations, 269
Professional schools, 47, 77, 280, 300, 357
Professions, preparation for entering, 55, 57, 77-81, 267, 268, 279-80, 296, 297
Prosperity, 37-43, 177

Psychology, 113, 235
Public employment service, 53, 54, 76, 170, 193, 242, 271, 277-78n, 284, 296, 303, 351
  See also Placement service
Public nursing services, 35, 374
Public problems. *See* Citizenship education
Public relations, 112, 198, 199, 203-204, 227-28, 240n, 330; 369, 370, 371, 372-73
  See also Community-school relations
Purposes. *See* Objectives

Race relations, 27, 85-86, 98, 101, 142, 169, 213, 247, 248, 252, 362-63, 372
  See also Intercultural education
Radio, 92, 135, 267
  discrimination in listening, 253
  for public relations, 204, 371
  study of, 14, 140, 186, 281, 282
  use of, 91, 101, 102, 133, 153, 249; 250, 367, 376
Reading, 14, 70-71, 133, 138, 152, 213, 216, 221n, 238, 287, 367
  discrimination in, 213, 253
  remedial, 367, 376-78
  tests, 241, 367, 377
Recordings, 140, 249, 250, 362, 376
Records, cumulative, 357, 377
  See also Health records; Personal history records
Recreation, 85, 148, 173, 181-82, 216, 307, 363, 379
  facilities, 41, 42, 88, 107, 120, 122, 123, 125, 159-60, 243, 264
  leaders, 122-23, 264, 282
  for out-of-school youth and adults, 122, 124, 125-26, 135-36, 152, 159-60, 272, 369, 381
  program, 45, 88, 118, 119-26, 148-50, 261-64
  recreation center, 44, 121, 381
  student planning of, 86, 122-23
  study of needs, 122, 215, 243
  supervisor, 119-23, 156, 157
  See also Physical education
Rejection for military service, 15, 255-56
Religious beliefs, 16, 143, 144, 146, 201
  See also Churches
Remedial instruction, 149, 302, 312-13
  English, 151, 241, 306, 312, 357
  mathematics, 14, 151, 241, 244, 306
  reading, 367, 376-78
  science, 14
  speech correction, 311, 376
  testing need for, 148, 241
Reorganization. *See* Consolidation of school districts
Required study, 5, 62, 205, 219-24, 232, 237-38, 255, 381
Research, 198, 199, 200-201, 318-19
  bureau of educational research, 300, 307, 340
  bureau of occupational research, 242, 265n, 296
  division of, American City, 210, 215
  division of, state, 330, 333, 340, 345, 351
  by U. S. Office of Education, 353
  See also Educational needs
Rome, ancient, 102
Rural areas, 15, 34, 36
  See also Farmville
Rural high schools, 35, 107, 324-25
  Farmville, 43-165
  regional high schools, 380
  reports from schools on,
    community-school relations, 369-71
    curriculum adjustments, 373-76
    guidance and student adjustment, 356-60
    vocational education, 363-66
Rural youth leadership conference, 95, 156
Russia, 101, 102, 249, 251
Russian language, 140

Safety, 28, 113, 205, 258-60, 375, 381
  driver education, 374, 378
St. Paul, 147
Sanitation, 15, 78, 101, 113, 182
Saudi Arabia, 252

Scheduling and sequence
  charts of, 148-49, 151, 233
  flexibility, 46-47, 59-60, 233-34
  student work, 72, 303, 305-307
Scholarships, 27
School building and equipment
  building standards, 340-41
  community colleges, 236-37, 332
  counseling center, 361
  facilities for the handicapped, 311
  Farmville Secondary School, planning the, 43-44, 121-23, 159-60
  literature classroom, 133
  recreational facilities, 120-23
  state planning, 340-41
  See also Laboratories; School finance; Shops
School cannery, 364
School farm, 70, 160, 164, 364
School finance, 332-33, 352, 369, 370, 372-73, 375
  advanced secondary education, 218, 326-36
  American City, 203, 209, 218, 236-37
  Farmville, 45, 154, 159-64
  legislation on, 3, 319, 323-24
  state program of, 27, 315, 319, 320-22, 329-31, 341
  transportation, 27, 320-21, 324
School legislation, 316-19, 337, 341, 346, 381
  adult education, 336
  advanced secondary education, 217, 319, 327-29
  attendance, 3, 44-45, 47, 57, 185, 217, 316, 319, 325-26
  consolidation, 319, 323-24
  historical, 3
School lunch, 69-71, 86, 260
  student work in lunch room, 69-70, 119, 162-63, 304, 364
School nurse, 108-10, 112, 113, 119, 258, 355, 361, 375
School physician, 55, 78, 108-10, 257-58, 260, 359, 361
School trustees, association of, 318
Schools of education, 44, 160, 301, 316, 330, 340, 342
Science, 14, 21, 138, 140, 149, 224, 225, 227, 228, 232, 233, 235, 237, 278, 279, 306, 307, 366, 379
  cultural aims of, 132
  cultural heritage, 123, 128-32
  health and, 61, 113, 137, 138, 255, 259
  history and, 98, 99, 101, 129-31
  methods of, understanding, 61-62, 128-32, 216, 220-21, 255
  need to study, 14, 61-62, 128, 216, 255
  "Scientific View of the World and of Man," 130-32, 151, 255
  teachers of, 53, 55, 88, 101, 112, 113, 129, 260
Secondary education, advanced. *See* Advanced secondary education
Secondary education, deficiencies in, 8-9
Secondary-school principals association, 317-18, 380
  See also Principals
Secretarial training. *See* Commercial training
Selective service, 173
Senior high school, 219, 230, 321
Sequence. *See* Scheduling and sequence
Shops
  craft, 118, 119, 121, 122, 125
  electric, 117, 119, 129
  farm machine, 69, 75, 86, 163
  machine, 129, 152, 186, 235, 304
  metal, 304
  printing, 75
  woodworking, 304
  See also Laboratories
Smith-Hughes Act, 352
Smith-Sears Vocational Rehabilitation Act, 353
Social problems, study of, 18-19, 22, 27, 95-103, 133, 151, 247, 248, 359-60, 372
Social studies, 67, 73, 78, 90-93, 95-103, 118n, 168, 187, 195, 214, 225, 227, 235, 279, 306, 358
  aims of, 96
  teachers of, 16, 88, 100, 212, 213
  See also Citizenship education; History
Socio-drama, 359

Spanish language, 140
Spiritual values. *See* Moral and spiritual values
Sports. *See* Athletics
State aid, 218, 315, 320-22, 335, 336, 337
  for advanced secondary education, 161, 326-36
  for buildings, 321, 323
  to equalize tax burden, 27, 83, 107, 317, 320-22
  for residence halls, 236, 321, 332, 333
  for small rural high schools, 324-25
  for transportation, 27, 321, 324
State board of education, 319, 323, 336, 337-38, 341, 342, 344
State department of education, 55, 156, 321, 338-51
  and community colleges, 217, 218, 232, 236, 316, 329-33, 335-36
  and consolidation, 43, 323-24
  and curriculum, 44n, 335
  educational leadership by, 158-59, 315, 316, 319, 325, 340, 344, 381
  and guidance, 301n, 316, 350-51
  reports from, 379-82
  research, 330, 333, 345
  schoolhouse planning, 44n, 160, 315, 340-41
  and teachers, 342-44
  and work experience, 345-47
State education associations, 340
  See also Superintendents; Secondary-school principals association; Teachers associations
State standards, 44n, 160n, 315, 320, 335, 339, 340-42, 344-45, 374
  See also State department of education
State superintendent of public instruction, 195-96, 330, 337, 338, 339
  See also Chief state school officer
State system of education, 315-54
  adult education, 336-37
  advanced secondary education, 326-37
  consolidation, 322, 325, 380
  finance, 315, 317, 320-22, 326-31
  legislative program, 319
  reports from states on recent developments in, 379-82
  See also State department of education
State university, 44, 88, 333, 352
Student aid funds, 162, 164, 192, 218, 273, 285, 300, 312n
  See also Student work; Scholarships
Student assistants, 78-79, 115, 119, 120, 122, 162-63, 304, 312-13
Student government, 253
Student planning of courses, 62, 86, 102, 122-23, 134, 158, 187-88, 226, 240, 242, 253, 379
Student-teacher relations, 85-87, 141-42, 174-75, 197, 226, 232, 274, 280, 292-95, 361, 362-63
Student work, 45n, 57, 69-70, 71-73, 85, 156, 160-64, 172, 187, 273, 284-85, 292, 302-305, 359, 364, 373
Study methods, improvement of, 241
Summer term, 306-307
Superintendent, 104, 154, 157, 183, 189, 195, 197, 198, 199, 200, 202, 205, 218, 317, 332, 364, 366, 370, 371, 376
Superintendents, association of public-school, 317-18
Superior students. *See* Gifted youth
Surveys. *See* Community, study of the
Swimming, 15, 114-15, 120, 261
Systematic study, 62-63, 96-97, 227, 245, 251

Taxation, 3, 82, 107, 320, 321-22, 323, 341, 372-73
Taxpayers associations, 318
Teacher education, 107, 199, 203, 254, 316, 342-44, 352, 380
  See also In-service training; Schools of education; Teachers colleges
Teacher Education in Service, 206-207
Teachers
  certification of, 315, 342
  cooperative teacher planning, 84, 88, 91, 100, 112, 113, 197, 203, 212-14, 217-18, 225-26, 228, 229, 243, 254

  as counselors, 46, 49, 51, 55, 79-80, 189, 218, 226, 228, 253, 257, 273, 279n, 289-90, 298, 357, 358
  and educational policy, 43, 82, 157, 198, 199-200, 202, 203, 371
  parent-teacher relations. *See* Parents
  qualifications, 274, 286, 343-44
  responsibility toward students, 85-86, 141-42, 364, 377
  salaries of, 107, 325
  schedules of, 150, 218, 226, 285, 289, 306n, 358
  See also subjects such as English, Social studies; Student-teacher relations; Teacher education
Teachers associations, 198, 199, 203, 317, 318, 349, 380
Teachers colleges, 160, 301, 340, 342
Technical and semiprofessional occupations, training for, 76, 186, 217, 235, 267-68, 281-82, 296, 297, 326, 366
Television, 101, 186, 253, 267, 281, 282
Terminal education, 6, 47n, 184n, 217, 281, 364-66
Testing, 50, 51, 59, 60, 241, 290, 291, 300, 309, 357, 358, 361, 377
  achievement, 280
  aptitudes, 55, 63, 349, 359, 367
  civic competence, 63-64
  college entrance, 349
  essential information, 63
  intelligence, 59, 63, 280, 367
  occupational skills, 63
  practical testing of knowledge, 138
  See also Evaluation; Marks and Credits
Time, wise use of, 216, 239, 241, 243
Totalitarianism, 17, 19, 22, 175, 178
Transfer of learning, 136
Transportation, 62, 179-80
  air, 76, 186, 236, 267, 282, 331
  school, 27, 161, 321, 324, 332, 333
  and science, 62, 100, 101, 255
  training in, 76, 186, 236, 282, 331
Trips, 188
  to American City, 53, 54, 73, 75, 111, 149
  field, 79, 130, 204, 226, 241, 246, 278, 292, 297, 360, 368, 371-72
Tuskegee College, 187

Unemployment, 169-71
  jobs for youth during, 170, 192, 285, 303-304
  public works program, 169, 304
Unesco, 92-93, 250
United Nations, 66, 92-93, 124, 175, 178
  See also World organization
United States Office of Education, 55, 160, 351, 353
Universities. *See* College and university
University of Pennsylvania, 2
Urban areas, 15, 167
  See also American City
Urban high schools
  American City schools, 166-314
  reports from schools on,
    community-school relations, 371-73
    curriculum adjustments, 376-79
    guidance and student adjustment, 361-63
    vocational education, 366-69
USSR. *See* Russia

Veterans, 13, 16, 40, 60, 150, 154, 176, 180, 300-301, 313, 326, 347-48, 353
Victory Farm Volunteers, 36
Vocational education
  American City, 264-87
    advisory committees on, 210, 211, 215, 268-71, 286-87, 296
    "American City at Work," 241-42, 253, 254, 297
    in community college, 76, 184n, 186, 232-33, 235-36, 271-73, 277, 278n, 280-83, 286, 298-99, 312n, 313, 331
    for the handicapped, 312
    need for, 193
    scheduling, 221, 233, 281, 306
    seven purposes of, 271-72
    teachers of, 212, 254, 260, 273, 274, 283-84, 286, 297, 343

- for young women, 16-18
- for youth who go directly to work, 221, 275-79, 299
- for youth who go into apprenticeship, 275, 276, 299
- for youth who plan education beyond community college, 221, 275, 279-80
- Farmville, 65-81, 151
  - and citizenship education, 66-67, 128, 129, 137, 150
  - in Grades XIII, XIV, 73-74, 335
  - need for, 69, 73-74
  - occupational survey, 53, 54, 67, 86, 88, 111, 156
  - scheduling, 148, 149, 151
  - teachers of, 72-73, 213
  - trips to American City, 53, 54, 75, 111, 149
  - "World at Work," 52-55, 111, 148, 150
  - for youth who will attend colleges, 47, 77-81
  - for youth who will move to cities, 47, 67, 72, 74-77, 299
  - for youth who will remain in Farmville, 67, 68-74
- federal aid for, 192-94, 352, 353-54, 364
- information on occupational requirements and opportunities, 50, 53, 54-55, 67, 74-75, 78-79, 241-42, 247, 248, 269-71, 273, 279, 290, 292, 295-98, 300, 351, 359
- reports from schools on, 363-68
- state coordination, 316, 331-32
- *See also* Guidance; Mechanics; Personal service occupations; Professions; Technical and semiprofessional occupations; War production training; Work experience

Vocational technical schools, 358, 381
Voluntary service organizations, study of, 243, 252

War Manpower Commission, 194
War production training, 171-72, 180, 193-94, 274, 353
Washington, George, 352
Watt, James, 131
Welfare director, county, 54, 154
White House Conference, 215
Whitman, Walt, 132
Women, young, 16-18
Wood, Grant, 133
Woodland Park, 230n, 282
Work experience programs
- American City, 187, 216, 221, 232, 271, 274, 276-78, 283-86, 291, 295, 298, 302-307, 312, 320n, 326
- Farmville, 57, 64, 71-73, 78-79, 148, 163
- principles of, 345-47
- reports from schools, 364, 367, 368, 373
- *See also* Student work

Workshops, 203, 252, 254, 300, 342, 345, 380
World citizenship. *See* Citizenship education
World organization, 62, 100
World War I, 255
World War II, 15, 36-37, 168-69, 353
- influence on college admission requirements and on college attendance, 60, 347-48
- influence on schools, 82-83, 95-96, 171-75, 188, 193-94, 204, 239, 256, 276-77, 280
- student employment during, 172, 193, 276-77, 284, 368
- *See also* Armed forces; War production training

Young women, 16-18
Youth,
- adjustment, 12-18, 20, 49, 170
- common characteristics of, 28-29
- differences in, 26-28
- numbers aged 16 to 21, 23
- sample descriptions of, 23-26
- view of high school, 5, 8, 361
- *See also* Adolescence; High-school graduates; Out-of-school youth; Educational needs

Youth centers, 381
Youth council, community, 88, 146, 155-56, 158, 163, 349-50, 366

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